REPORT RESUMES

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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT INCLUDING A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

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THE MANPOWER MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT TO THE CONGRESS, DELIVERED JANUARY 23, 1967, IN WHICH HE PROPOSED THE LARGEST MANPOWER PROGRAM YET UNDERTAKEN BY THE NATION IS PRESENTED. THE SIXTH MANPOWER REPORT, THE MAJOR PART OF THIS DOCUMENT, ASSESSES ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF EFFORTS DIRECTED TOWARD NATIONAL MANPOWER OBJECTIVES. NEW GROUND IS BROKEN THROUGH THE REPORT'S SYSTEMATIC REVIEW, IN EACH CHAPTER, OF THE CURRENT STATE OF KNOWLEDGE OF THE MAJOR MANPOWER PROBLEM AREAS AND THE SUGGESTIONS IT MAKES REGARDING NEEDED INFORMATIONAL IMPROVEMENTS. MAJOR CHAPTER HEADINGS ARE--(1) "INTRODUCTION BY THE SECRETARY OF LABOR," (2) "NEW PERSPECTIVES ON MANPOWER PROBLEMS AND MEASURES," (3) "BARRIERS TO EMPLOYMENT OF THE DISADVANTAGED," (4) "BRIDGING THE GAP FROM SCHOOL TO WORK," (5) "GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN EMPLOYMENT AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT," AND (6) "REVIEW OF MANPOWER DEVELOPMENTS IN 1967," INCLUDING THE SUBHEADINGS "TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT" AND "NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS." A STATISTICAL APPENDIX INCLUDES 87 TABLES WHICH PROVIDE INFORMATION ON (1) THE LABOR FORCE, EMPLOYMENT, AND UNEMPLOYMENT, (2) SPECIAL LABOR FORCE DATA, (3) EMPLOYMENT, HOURS, EARNINGS, AND LABOR TURNOVER IN NONAGRICULTURAL ESTABLISHMENTS, (4) STATE AND AREA EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT, AND (5) MANPOWER PROGRAM STATISTICS. THE DATA FOR 1967 REFLECT SEVERAL DEFINITIONAL CHANGES OF IMPORTANT CONCEPTS. ABSTRACTS OF CHAPTERS 2 THROUGH 6 ARE AVAILABLE AS VT 005 942-VT 005 947. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE AS L1.42/2--968 FOR $2.25 FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D.C. 20402. (ET)

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# MANPOWER REPORT of the PRESIDENT

including

## A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

TRANSMITTED TO THE CONGRESS APRIL 1968

VT001025

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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# LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

To the Congress of the United States:

It is a traditional event for the President to submit to Congress an annual report on the progress of our manpower programs.

Although the custom is long established, there is nothing routine about this report or its subject: jobs for our citizens: more useful, more satisfying jobs to give Americans a sense of full participation in their society.

Four months ago I told Congress that jobs are "the first essential."

In my first special legislative message this year, I proposed that Congress launch a new $2.1 billion manpower program—the most sweeping in our history.

At the same time I called on the leaders of American commerce and industry to form a National Alliance of Businessmen to provide jobs for hundreds of thousands of the hard-core unemployed.

On April 25, the Alliance reported to me on its progress so far:

—More than 500 executives, whose talents command more than $15 million in salaries alone, have volunteered to work full time in 50 of our largest cities. They are assisted by 7,000 other volunteers.

—By mid-April, the Alliance had received pledges of 111,000 jobs—66,000 permanent jobs for the hard-core unemployed, and 45,000 summer jobs for poor young people.

—Labor unions, the Urban Coalition, Chambers of Commerce, churches, schools, and many civic groups have joined this crusade to give the words "full employment" a new meaning in America.

Meanwhile, the Government's new Concentrated Employment Program has been active in more than 50 cities meshing its efforts with the National Alliance of Businessmen. And the administration of our job programs has been given new energy through reorganization and strong leadership.

These are hopeful beginnings. But certainly they are no grounds for complacency.

In every city, there are men who wake up each morning and have no place to go; men who want work—but cannot break the confining welfare chain or overcome the barriers of life-long discrimination, or make up for the lack of schooling and training.

When we talk about unemployment, we are talking about these citizens, who want and need personal dignity and a stake in America's progress.

When we talk about manpower programs, we are talking about hope for these Americans.

And every time we tabulate new statistics of success in these programs, we are recording a small personal triumph somewhere: a man trained; a youth given a sense of his value; a family freed at last from welfare.

That hope is what makes this great task so exciting—and so vital.

To every member of the Congress, upon whom our manpower programs depend, I commend this report.

I urge the Congress to support these programs by approving the $2.1 billion manpower budget request I recommended in January.

Lyndon B. Johnson

The White House,
*May 1, 1968.*

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# MANPOWER
# MESSAGE
# OF THE
# PRESIDENT

*To the Congress of the United States:*

In this, my first message to the Congress following the State of the Union Address, I propose:

—A $2.1 billion manpower program, the largest in the Nation's history, to help Americans who want to work get a job.

—The Nation's first comprehensive Occupational Health and Safety Program, to protect the worker while he is on the job.

## THE QUESTION FOR OUR DAY

Twenty years ago, after a cycle of depression, recovery, and war, America faced an historic question: Could we launch what President Truman called "a positive attack upon the ever-recurring problems of mass unemployment and ruinous depression"?

That was the goal of the Employment Act of 1946. The answer was a long time in forming. But today there is no longer any doubt.

We can see the answer in the record of 7 years of unbroken prosperity.

We can see it in this picture of America today:

Seventy-five million of our people are working—in jobs that are better paying and more secure than ever before.

Seven and a half million new jobs have been created in the last 4 years, more than 5,000 every day. This year will see that number increased by more than 1½ million.

In that same period, the unemployment rate has dropped from 5.7 percent to 3.8 percent—the lowest in more than a decade.

The question for our day is this: In an economy capable of sustaining high employment, how can we assure every American who is willing to work the right to earn a living?

We have always paid lipservice to that right. But there are many Americans for whom the right has never been real:

—The boy who becomes a man without developing the ability to earn a living.

—The citizen who is barred from a job because of other men's prejudices.

—The worker who loses his job to a machine and is told he is too old for anything else.

—The boy or girl from the slums whose summers are empty because there is nothing to do.

—The man and the woman blocked from productive employment by barriers rooted in poverty: lack of health, lack of education, lack of training, lack of motivation.

Their idleness is a tragic waste both of the human spirit and of the economic resources of a great Nation.

It is a waste that an enlightened Nation should not tolerate.

It is a waste that a Nation concerned by disorders in its city streets *cannot* tolerate.

This Nation has already begun to attack that waste.

In the years that we have been building our unprecedented prosperity, we have also begun to build a network of manpower programs designed to meet and match individual needs with individual opportunities.

## OUR MANPOWER PROGRAM NETWORK

Until just a few years ago, our efforts consisted primarily of maintaining employment offices throughout the country and promoting apprenticeship training.

The Manpower Development and Training Act, passed in 1962, was designed to equip the worker with new skills when his old skills were outdistanced by technology. That program was greatly strengthened and expanded in 1963, 1965, and again in 1966 to serve the disadvantaged as well. In fiscal 1969, it will help over 275,000 citizens.

Our manpower network grew as the Nation launched its historic effort to conquer poverty:

—*The Job Corps* gives young people from the poorest families education and training they need to prepare for lives as productive and self-supporting citizens. In fiscal 1969 the Job Corps will help almost 100,000 children of the poor.

—*The Neighborhood Youth Corps* enables other poor youngsters to serve their community and themselves at the same time. Last year the Congress expanded the program to include adults as well. In fiscal 1969, the Neighborhood Youth Corps will help over 560,000 citizens.

—Others, such as *Work Experience, New Careers, Operation Mainstream,* and the *Work Incentive Program,* are directed toward the employment problems of poor adults. In fiscal 1969, 150,000 Americans will receive the benefits of training through these programs.

These are pioneering efforts. They all work in different ways. Some provide for training alone. Others combine training with work. Some are full-time. Others are part-time.

One way to measure the scope of these programs is to consider how many men and women have been helped:

—In fiscal 1963: 75,000.

—In fiscal 1967: more than 1 million.

But the real meaning of these figures is found in the quiet accounts of lives that have been changed:

—In Oregon, a seasonal farmworker was struggling to sustain his eight children on $46 a week. Then he received on-the-job training as a welder. Now he can support his family on an income three times as high.

—In Pennsylvania, a truckdriver lost his job because of a physical disability and had to go on welfare. He learned a new skill. Now he is self-reliant again, working as a clerk with a city police department.

—In Kansas, a high school dropout was salvaged from what might have been an empty life. He learned a trade with the Job Corps. Now he has a decent job with an aircraft company.

Across America, examples such as these attest to the purpose and the success of our programs to give a new start to men and women who have the will to work for a better life.

These are good programs. They are contributing to the strength of America. And they must continue.

But they must reach even further.

*I will ask the Congress to appropriate $2.1 billion for our manpower programs for fiscal 1969.*

—This is the largest such program in the Nation's history.

—It is a 25-percent increase over fiscal 1968.

—It will add $442 million to our manpower efforts.

In a vigorous, flourishing economy, this is a program for justice as well as for jobs.

These funds will enable us to continue and strengthen existing programs, and to advance to new ground as well.

With this program, we can reach 1.3 million Americans, including those who have rarely if ever been reached before—the hard-core unemployed.

## THE CONCENTRATED EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM

Our past efforts, vital as they are, have not yet effectively reached the hard-core unemployed.

These hard-core are America's forgotten men and women. Many of them have not worked for a long time. Some have never worked at all. Some have held only odd jobs. Many have been so discouraged by life that they have lost their sense of purpose.

In the Depression days of the 1930's, jobless men lined the streets of our cities seeking work. But today, the jobless are often hard to find. They are the invisible poor of our Nation.

Last year I directed the Secretary of Labor to bring together in one unified effort all the various manpower and related programs which could help these people in the worst areas of some of our major cities and in the countryside.

The Concentrated Employment Program was established for this purpose.

Its first task was to find the hard-core unemployed, to determine who they are, and where and how they live.

Now we have much of that information.

Five hundred thousand men and women who have never had jobs—or who face serious employment problems—are living in the slums of our 50 largest cities.

The first detailed profile we have ever had of these unemployed Americans reveals that substantial numbers:

—Lack adequate education and job training.

—Have other serious individual problems—such as physical handicaps—which impair their earning ability.

—Are Negroes, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, or Indians.

—Are teenagers, or men over 45.

As the unemployed were identified, the Concentrated Employment Program set up procedures for seeking them out, counseling them, providing them with health and education services, training them—all with the purpose of directing them into jobs or into the pipeline to employment.

*As part of the new manpower budget, I am recommending expansion of the Concentrated Employment Program.*

That program now serves 22 urban and rural areas. In a few months it will expand to 76. With the funds I am requesting, it can operate in 146.

## JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

The ultimate challenge posed by the hard-core unemployed is to prepare rejected men and women for productive employment—for dignity, independence, and self-sufficiency.

In our thriving economy, where jobs in a rapidly growing private sector are widely available and the unemployment rate is low, the "make work" programs of the 1930's are not the answer to today's problem.

The answer, I believe, is to train the hard-core unemployed for work in private industry:

—The jobs are there: 6 out of every 7 working Americans are employed in the private sector.

—Government-supported on-the-job training is the most effective gateway to meaningful employment: 9 out of every 10 of those who have received such training have gone on to good jobs.

—Industry knows how to train people for the jobs on which its profits depend.

That is why, late last year, we stepped up the effort to find jobs in private industry. With the help of American businessmen, we launched a $40 million test training program in five of our larger cities.

The program was built around three basic principles:

—To engage private industry fully in the problems of the hard-core unemployed.

—To pay with government funds the *extra* costs of training the disadvantaged for steady employment.

—To simplify government paperwork and make all government services easily and readily available to the employer.

## THE URGENT TASK

With that work, we prepared our blueprints. We have built the base for action.

Encouraged by our test program and by the progress that American industry has made in similar efforts, we should now move forward.

*To press the attack on the problem of the jobless in our cities, I propose that we launch the Job Opportunities in Business Sector (JOBS) Program—a new partnership between Government and private industry to train and hire the hard-core unemployed.*

I propose that we devote $350 million to support this partnership—starting now with $106 million from funds available in our manpower programs for fiscal 1968, and increasing that amount to $244 million in fiscal 1969.

Our target is to put 100,000 men and women on the job by June 1969 and 500,000 by June 1971. To meet that target, we need prompt approval by the Congress of the request for funds for our manpower programs.

This is high priority business for America.

The future of our cities is deeply involved. And so is the strength of our Nation.

## HOW THIS NEW PROGRAM WILL WORK

Our objective, in partnership with the business community, is to restore the jobless to useful lives through productive work.

There can be no rigid formulas in this program. For it breaks new ground.

The situation calls, above all, for flexibility and cooperation.

Essentially, the partnership will work this way:

The government will identify and locate the unemployed.

The company will train them, and offer them jobs.

The company will bear the normal cost of training, as it would for any of its new employees.

But with the hard-core unemployed there will be extra costs.

These men will be less qualified than those the employer would normally hire. So additional training will often be necessary.

But even more than this will be needed. Some of these men and women will need transportation services. Many will have to be taught to read and write. They will have health problems to be corrected. They will have to be counseled on matters ranging from personal care to proficiency in work.

These are the kinds of extra costs that will be involved.

Where the company undertakes to provide these services, it is appropriate that the Government pay the extra costs as part of the national manpower program.

The Concentrated Employment Program, in many areas, will provide manpower services to support the businessman's effort.

## A NATIONAL ALLIANCE OF BUSINESSMEN

This is a tall order for American business. But the history of American business is the history of triumph over challenge.

And the special talents of American business can make this program work.

*To launch this program, I have called on American industry to establish a National Alliance of Businessmen.*

The Alliance will be headed by Mr. Henry Ford II.

Fifteen of the Nation's top business leaders will serve on its Executive Board. Leading business executives from the Nation's 50 largest cities will spearhead the effort in their own communities.

This Alliance will be a working group, concerned not only with the policy but with the operation of the program.

It will:

- —Help put 500,000 hard-core unemployed into productive business and industrial jobs in the next 3 years.
- —Give advice to the Secretaries of Labor and Commerce on how this program can work most effectively, and how we can cut Government "red tape."

The Alliance will also have another vital mission: to find productive jobs for 200,000 needy youth this summer—an experience that will lead them back to school in the fall, or on to other forms of education, training, or permanent employment.

The Alliance will work closely in this venture with the Vice President. As Chairman of the President's Council on Youth Opportunity, he will soon meet with the Alliance and with the mayors of our 50 largest cities to advance this pressing work.

## THE REWARDS OF ACTION

The rewards of action await us at every level.

*To the individual,* a paycheck is a passport to self-respect and self-sufficiency.

*To the worker's family,* a paycheck offers the promise of a fuller and better life—in material advantages and in new educational opportunities.

*Our society as a whole* will benefit when welfare recipients become taxpayers, and new jobholders increase the Nation's buying power.

These are dollars and cents advantages.

But there is no way to estimate the value of a decent job that replaces hostility and anger with hope and opportunity.

There is no way to estimate the respect of a boy or girl for his parent who has earned a place in our world.

There is no way to estimate the stirring of the American dream of learning, saving, and building a life of independence.

Finally, employment is one of the major weapons with which we will eventually conquer poverty in this country, and banish it forever from American life.

Our obligation is clear. We must intensify the work we have just begun. The new partnership I have proposed in this message will help reach that lost legion among us, and make them productive citizens.

It will not be easy.

But until the problem of joblessness is solved, these men and women will remain wasted Americans—each one a haunting reminder of our failure.

Each one of these waiting Americans represents a potential victory we have never been able to achieve in all the years of this Nation.

Until now.

## A STRENGTHENED MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

The programs I have discussed are the visible evidence of a Nation's commitment to provide a job for every citizen who wants it, and who will work for it.

Less visible is the machinery—the planning, the management and administration—which turns these programs into action and carries them to the people who need them.

I recently directed the Secretary of Labor to strengthen and streamline the Manpower Administration—the instrument within the Federal Government which manages almost 80 percent of our manpower programs.

That effort is now close to completion.

But we must have top administrators now—both here in Washington and in the eight regions across the country in which these manpower programs will operate.

*As part of our new manpower budget, I am requesting the Congress to approve more than 600 new positions for the Manpower Administration. These will include 16 of the highest Civil Service grades.*

The central fact about all our manpower programs is that they are local in nature. The jobs and opportunities exist in the cities and communities of this country. That is where the people who need them live. That is where the industries are—and the classrooms, the day care centers, and the health clinics.

What is required is a system to link Federal efforts with the resources at the State and local levels.

We already have the framework, the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS), which we started last year.

Now I propose that we establish it for the long term.

CAMPS will operate at every level—Federal, regional, State, and local. At each level, it will pull together all the manpower services which bear on jobs.

But its greatest impact will be at the local level, where it will:

—Help the communities develop their own manpower blueprints.

—Survey job needs.

—Assure that all Federal programs to help the jobseeker are available.

*As part of our manpower budget, I am requesting $11 million to fund the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System in fiscal 1969.*

## OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY AND HEALTH

The programs outlined so far in this message will train the man out of work for a job, and help him find one.

To give the American worker the complete protection he needs, we must also safeguard him against hazards on the job.

Today, adequate protection does not exist.

It is to the shame of a modern industrial Nation, which prides itself on the productivity of its workers, that each year:

—14,500 workers are killed on the job.

—2.2 million workers are injured.

—250 million man-days of productivity are wasted.

—$1.5 billion in wages are lost.

—The result: a loss of $5 billion to the economy.

This loss of life, limb, and sight must end. An attack must be launched at the source of the evil—against the conditions which cause hazards and invite accidents.

The reasons for these staggering losses are clear. Safety standards are narrow. Research lags behind. Enforcement programs are weak. Trained safety specialists fall far short of the need.

The Federal Government offers the worker today only a patchwork of obsolete and ineffective laws.

The major law—Walsh-Healey—was passed more than three decades ago. Its coverage is limited. It applies only to a worker performing a Government contract. Last year about half of the work force was covered, and then only part of the time.

It is more honored in the breach than observed. Last year, investigations revealed a disturbing number of violations in the plants of Government contractors.

Comprehensive protection under other Federal laws is restricted to about a million workers in specialized fields—longshoremen and miners, for example.

Only a few States have modern laws to protect the worker's health and safety. Most have no coverage or laws that are weak and deficient.

The gap in worker protection is wide and glaring—and it must be closed by a strong and forceful new law.

*It must be our goal to protect everyone of America's 75 million workers while they are on the job.*

*I am submitting to the Congress the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1968.*

Here, in broad outline, is what this measure will do.

For more than 50 million workers involved in interstate commerce, it will:

—Strengthen the authority and resources of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to conduct an extensive program of research. This will provide the needed information on which new standards can be developed.

—Empower the Secretary of Labor to set and enforce those standards.

—Impose strong sanctions, civil and criminal, on those who endanger the health and safety of the American workingman.

For American workers in intrastate commerce, it will provide, for the first time, Federal help to the States to start and strengthen their own health and safety programs. These grants will assist the States to:

—Develop plans to protect the worker.

—Collect information on occupational injuries and diseases.

—Set and enforce standards.

—Train inspectors and other needed experts.

## CONCLUSION

When Walt Whitman heard America singing a century ago, he heard that sound in workers at their jobs.

Today that sound rings from thousands of factories and mills, workbenches and assembly lines, stronger than ever before.

Jobs are the measure of how far we have come.

But it is right to measure a Nation's efforts not only by what it has done, but by what remains to be done.

In this message, I have outlined a series of proposals dealing with the task ahead—to give reality to the right to earn a living.

These proposals deal with jobs.

But their reach is far broader.

The demand for more jobs is central to the expression of all our concerns and our aspirations—about cities, poverty, civil rights, and the improvement of men's lives.

I urge the Congress to give prompt and favorable consideration to the proposals in this message.

Lyndon B. Johnson

THE WHITE HOUSE
*January 23, 1968.*

# REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING BY THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Willard Wirtz, *Secretary*

# LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Washington, D.C., April 22, 1968.

THE PRESIDENT

Dear Mr. President: I have the honor to present herewith a report pertaining to manpower requirements, resources, utilization, and training, as required by section 107 of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.

Respectfully,

Willard Wirtz

*Secretary of Labor.*

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report was prepared by the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, in cooperation with the other Bureaus and Offices of the Department. The Bureau of Labor Statistics furnished substantial statistical information and contributed to the analysis in the chapters on Trends in Employment and Unemployment and New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures. The Office of Policy Planning and Research prepared the chapter on Bridging the Gap from School to Work. This office also contributed to the text of the New Perspectives chapter, as did the Bureau of Labor Standards, the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, and the Bureau of the Census of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

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The Department of Labor's Office of Information, Publications and Reports designed the graphic materials.

# 1

# INTRODUCTION BY THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

# INTRODUCTION

## BY THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

On January 23, in a special message to the Congress, the President proposed the largest manpower program yet undertaken by the Nation.

This *Manpower Report* by the Department of Labor supplements the President's Manpower Message, which constitutes the first part of this volume. The report surveys what has been done and what yet remains to be achieved by manpower policies and programs

—to "assure every American who is willing to work the right to earn a living,"

—to strengthen the economy's productive capacity and resist inflationary forces,

—to insure satisfying working lives for our Nation's people.

### HIGH EMPLOYMENT AND THE RIGHT TO EARN A LIVING

In making full employment a goal of public policy by passage of the Employment Act of 1946, the Congress wisely wrote no single prescription for its achievement. Nor did the Congress set a single measure to judge achievement.

The current economic expansion—the longest in this century—has demonstrated the capacity of our economy to sustain a high and increasing level of employment.

We have substantially overcome the problem of serious cyclical unemployment which every few years added millions to the unemployment rolls.

We have begun to pull Appalachia out of its depressed condition, and we are launching similar efforts in other depressed regions of the Nation.

We have reduced the number of labor areas with substantial unemployment from 88 in early 1961 to only 11 in February 1968.

We are steadily zeroing in on the remaining targets of unemployment:

—The hard-core unemployed, who require skill training, literacy training, and successful work experience, to develop new motivation and become stable, productive workers.

—The seasonally unemployed, who are fully prepared to work all year and yet constitute one-fifth of present unemployment.

—The hundreds of thousands of unemployed young people who are still struggling to cross the gap between school and work.

—The unemployed and inactive older workers, whose considerable energies and talents are wasted as a result of inadequate opportunities, outmoded traditions, and outright discrimination.

—The unemployed and underemployed members of minority groups—Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, American Indians, and others—who need special help to catch up with the majority.

—The jobless handicapped, many of whom could become employable and employed with rehabilitation and other services.

Where the Nation stands today in these matters is reviewed in two of the chapters which follow, entitled *New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures* and *Trends in Employment and Unemployment.*

## The Hard-Core Unemployed

More than a million American workers spend half or more of the year in idleness. At least half of them are concentrated in the 50 largest cities.

—They have not been reached by 7 years of economic growth.

—They urgently need help.

—It would be a tragic national mistake in economic judgment to count their plight a necessary price for fiscal soundness and price stability.

—On the contrary, these people can be assisted in ways which will add to the productive strength of the economy and to its ability to resist the forces of inflation.

We now have the knowledge to help them—knowledge acquired through a variety of programs, several of them added this year:

—Through special programs for disadvantaged youth—the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps (650,000 enrolled during fiscal 1968).

—Through special programs to develop New Careers for the poor and through Operation Mainstream, aimed primarily at hard-core unemployed adults (over 30,000 enrolled in 1968).

—Through special employment programs for people on welfare—the Work-Experience and Training Program and the new Work Incentive Program (69,000 enrolled in 1968).

—Through special training programs (classroom and on-the-job) under MDTA and through Opportunities Industrialization Centers (310,000 enrolled in 1968).

—Through the new Concentrated Employment Programs, which bring these and other programs to bear in target slum areas.

—Through the new JOBS (Job Opportunities in Business Sector) Program announced by the President in his Manpower Message (100,000 to be employed by the end of fiscal 1969).

Altogether, close to 1 million will be enrolled in fiscal 1968 in these and other special programs for the disadvantaged. A review of recent program efforts is contained in *New Developments in Manpower Programs*, a chapter in this report.

Experience confirms now the essential elements in a continued and growing effort to deal with the hardest cases:

—That a followthrough is necessary—providing support beyond specified periods of training or work experience: The years of deprivation, the inadequacy of "schooling," the fear of failing are not normally overcome within the duration of a set "program" of so many weeks.

—That a program leading to a decent job which will enable a worker to support a family and get out of poverty *does* attract hard-core individuals, but recruiting and "outreach" efforts cannot attract these people into dead-end programs that do not pay off.

—That the sooner the hard-core individuals can be put into a real job situation the better, provided basic preparatory and support activities can continue.

—That the basic costs of preparing the hard core for stable employment are substantially higher than for those with whom employers and earlier manpower programs have normally dealt.

—That hard-core individuals often face several problems, such as poor education, lack of skill, poor work history, poor health, lack of transportation, absence of child care facilities, discrimination, poor motivation—and that for many there is no *single* answer.

—That these diverse elements *can* be put together into a single manpower program in a slum area with substantial gains in effectiveness.

—That we *can* successfully concentrate our manpower efforts on those slum areas where the problem is concentrated, where the going is toughest.

A review of present knowledge about the obstacles to employment of this group and the strategies needed to overcome them is provided in the chapter of this report entitled *Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged.*

## The Program Ahead

The State of the Union and the Manpower Messages to the Congress proposed the start of a new partnership between business and labor, on the one hand, and Government, on the other, in which each party does what is necessary to absorb those who remain unemployed after 7 years of steady economic growth.

It is not enough to insure subsistence where work is not available; it is not enough now to provide training where there are no skills; it is now necessary to offer a chance to participate in business and industry to all who will try.

The JOBS Program will guarantee what in the past has been too often missing or uncertain—a real job. It will:

—Guarantee that the serious efforts of individuals will *pay off.*

—Enable individuals to work at real jobs while they continue to upgrade their abilities.

—Enlist the aid of private industry in following through from *training* to *employment.*

To accomplish this, American business—management and labor—must:

—Reexamine every barrier standing in the way of hiring the hard-core unemployed and remove these obstacles wherever possible.

—Bring its training capabilities to bear on these workers to compensate for their inadequate preparation.

—Provide extra support—including "coaches" and new types of first-line supervisory training—so that tendencies to fail or to quit can be reversed.

As its share in the partnership, the Government must:

—Assist business in paying for the extra costs of special training and support provided by employers to the hard-core unemployed.

—Streamline administration, cut out the "red tape" that can make partnership with the Government frustrating and sometimes well-nigh impossible.

—Accept, and move in the next several years to fulfill, a commitment to *guarantee* to all an opportunity to *train* and prepare for work, shifting the measure of program from incremental increases of training to achieving the goal of *guaranteed training* for all.

Many actions by industry and by Government, especially in the last several years, give evidence that each will do its part and that this new partnership will succeed. Examples are:

—The arrangement under which the largest steel companies refer to the Employment Service for training applicants initially rejected by the companies.

—Training by management in the telephone industry of persons who fail entry tests.

—The pioneering review by the Bethlehem Steel Corp. of its testing program in relation to job needs, which has led to adjustment of entrance standards.

—The Newark Business and Industrial Coordinating Council's work, spearheaded by Western Electric Co., Inc., and Bamberger's Department Store, to provide instructors and special facilities to enable people to meet hiring standards.

—The program of CORE in cooperation with Humble Oil and Refining Co. in Baltimore, to train service station personnel and future franchise holders.

—The Lockheed Aircraft Corp. policy that a percentage of newly hired workers be disadvantaged persons.

—The concerted action by automobile manufacturers and other large companies in Detroit to hire the disadvantaged residents of the central city, including waiving tests and removing other barriers to employment.

—The actions in several cities by construction management, the building trades, the Workers' Defense League, and the Urban League to develop special apprentice-entry training programs.

—The new efforts of the National Association of Manufacturers in its STEP program.

—The training of thousands of unemployed workers sponsored by the United Automobile Workers, the International Union of Electrical Workers, the United Brotherhood of Carpenters, the International Union of Operating Engineers, the Bricklayers International Union, the International Association of Machinists, and others; and the upgrading training sponsored by many unions which will open new opportunities for the hard core in entry-level jobs.

All these private efforts to accept and train those who would have been rejected before have striking parallels in the Government's new and growing programs to accept and train for military duty many who formerly would have been rejected and to prepare the least educated veterans for civilian life—Projects 100,000 and Transition. In addition, the Government is making vigorous efforts to inform disadvantaged workers about the opportunities in Federal civilian jobs for which they can qualify.

The new partnership between private industry and Government will involve the active participation, on a full-time basis, of a new group of business executives, who will develop job opportunities in private industry.

It will involve the corresponding development of Concentrated Employment Program capability and a strengthened Manpower Administration within the Department of Labor:

—Extending the full impact of manpower efforts and the integrated system for delivering manpower services through Concentrated Employment Programs to 76 areas in fiscal 1968 and 70 more in 1969.

—Bringing the locally oriented Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) to the forefront, to integrate all programs within the fast-growing manpower system—75,000 trained in fiscal 1963; 1.3 million to be served through training, work-experience, and related programs in fiscal 1969.

—Training 5,000 returning GI's in special centers to work in manpower programs in deprived areas.

—Providing a new charter for the Employment Service system, giving it advanced electronic equipment and concentrating more of the system's present resources on the problems of the hard-core unemployed.

### The Seasonally Unemployed

Seasonal unemployment represents one-third of all unemployment in the construction industry, which has a higher unemployment rate than any other major industry (6.6 percent in 1967).

Seasonal variations in employment in construction are partly a matter of adjustment to weather (both the rigors of winter and the inconveniences of bad weather in other seasons), but they are more than this. They represent the residue of practices habitual in days before modern methods of coping with weather had been developed. They also reflect a lag in the application of known scheduling and construction methods and the existence of some technical problems, which have not been faced squarely by an industry with limited research and development activities.

Seasonality does not have the same effect on all workers in the construction industry. A portion of the labor force, probably at least a quarter of the total, has substantially full opportunity for annual employment—workers employed by contractors on a year-round basis, or on long-duration jobs, or in shortage areas, and some exceptionally experienced individual workers. A second group, at least half the total, carries the brunt of seasonal unemployment, and has substantially less than full-time or full-year earnings opportunity, though relying almost wholly upon the industry as a source of employment. The third group of workers in the construction work force is in and out of the industry.

Each of these groups is affected adversely by another factor, intermittent employment. Like seasonal employment, this is caused partly by alterable industrial habits and methods.

Seasonality and intermittency have had significant effects on wage rates: The uncertainties of employment have led to an historic process of justifying high hourly rates as necessary to provide reasonable annual earnings.

There has been almost no change in the overall degree of seasonal variation in employment in this country since the end of World War II, and no significant action to reduce it. In contrast, other industrialized countries, especially those which have rigorous winters, have taken positive steps to diminish seasonality of construction employment. These steps have been particularly pronounced since the end of World War II and have provided a considerable body of experience that has been the subject of discussions at the International

Labor Organization and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

A review of manpower, economic, and engineering facts by the Secretaries of Commerce and of Labor suggest that a positive program should be undertaken to diminish seasonality.

There is a great variety of contracting practices and procedures. Some agencies contract for construction directly with construction firms, while others finance grants-in-aid through State, city, or county governments. The various agencies have different policies regarding the problems of seasonality, and there is not that interchange of information among them which would permit the planning necessary to avoid or diminish seasonal concentration of construction work in a particular area.

The problems that Federal Government contracting officials would face in any effort to diminish seasonality are compounded by the fact that they generally lack the ability to influence State and local patterns of construction activity undertaken with funds from other sources.

Consideration is being given by representatives of the interested agencies to the development of a policy of positive action with respect to the question of seasonality, including:

—Arrangements for the scheduling of Federal construction programs, and for the possible coordination of such scheduling with that of State and local governments, so as to reduce seasonality.

—Participation in the development of such a program by representatives of construction employers and workers.

—Collection and dissemination of information about technology which can reduce seasonality, the initiation of a research and development program, and the provision of relevant statistical data.

### The Handicapped

There are between 500,000 and 800,000 handicapped persons who could benefit from appropriate rehabilitation or employment services each year but who are not now served adequately. Many of those not served are living in rural and urban slums, where their problem is made worse by inadequate medical service, ignorance, substandard housing, inadequate transportation, and other contributing environmental conditions.

Reaching these people and making their right to earn a living a real one, will require increased concentration of unified effort and a greater involvement of the private sector through the mechanism of on-the-job training.

Special attention is being given to the problems of the handicapped in the slum areas, and steps are being taken throughout the Employment Service to meet their work and work-training needs. Present arrangements for medical screening examinations are being expanded, in cooperation with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, to move toward covering *all* enrolleees in manpower programs in order to detect any sign of physical or mental barriers to employment.

There is continuing interdepartmental exploration of the further ways in which opportunities for the handicapped can be opened up, of methods of meeting the special transportation needs of the handicapped (especially in regard to the relationship of transportation to employment), and of new programs of education and public information which will bring this situation to the attention of the public and of potential employers.

### Bridging the Gap From School to Work

The rate of unemployment among youth remains unacceptably high, despite sustained economic expansion and despite the special youth employment programs which have been enacted in the last 4 years.

The proposed Partnership for Learning and Earning Act represents an important advance in bridging the gap between education and employment. It provides for the financing of special experimental programs enlisting the cooperation of schools, employment services, and private employers; for new summer training programs combining work and education; for Employment Service assistance in the schools; and for further educational opportunity for those youth who have already started work but who need a firmer base if they are to succeed. It will afford them all types of secondary education—not just vocational education—through a coordinated effort on the part of the education and manpower agencies at the local level.

A more complete discussion of this matter is contained in the chapter of this report entitled *Bridging the Gap From School to Work.*

## MANPOWER ACTION TO RESIST INFLATIONARY FORCES

Inefficiencies in the use of human resources in our Nation mean not only personal deprivation and tragedy, but staggering financial losses and costs:

—$6.8 billion per year in direct and indirect costs of occupational injuries.

—$5 billion in premium payments for overtime, resulting in large part from lack of personnel and poor planning.

—$2.2 billion in unemployment benefits, which could be decreased if seasonal unemployment were reduced and laidoff workers were more quickly reemployed—for example, by a computer-equipped Employment Service, more fully utilized by both employers and workers.

There are, in addition, other costs that cannot be estimated as yet:

—The costs of welfare payments to employable and trainable workers who can be and want to be self-supporting.

—The costs of wage increases negotiated to offset the fact or fear of seasonal unemployment.

—The losses in productive capacity when people are educated, or trained, or employed far below their potential abilities.

—The costs of crime, delinquency, and riots attributable, at least in part, to unemployment and poverty.

These costs must be reduced. They *can* be reduced. They are today being reduced through training programs which return to society within 1 year more than their total cost to the Federal Government.

Almost every person who goes through a training program or a work-experience program—whether it be MDTA, or Job Corps, or Neighborhood Youth Corps, or Work-Experience, or New Careers, or Operation Mainstream, or Project 100,000, or Project Transition—comes out better equipped to earn a living and pay taxes, and is thus less likely to need support from public sources.

Every step taken to improve the utilization, efficiency, and productivity of manpower is a step to prevent inflationary increases in labor and other costs.

### Steps to Augment Health Manpower

There has been great progress toward bringing medical services to all people. But this dramatic growth has strained the capacity to provide trained personnel to the point where manpower shortages are now critical, and are a part of the reason for rising costs of health care. The Congress has enacted major legislation to improve and expand health manpower resources. It passed:

—The Manpower Development and Training Act.

—The Vocational Education Act of 1963.

—The Health Professions Educational Assistance Act.

—The Nurse Training Act.

—The Heart Disease, Cancer, and Stroke Amendments to the Public Health Service Act.

—The Economic Opportunity Act.

—The Allied Health Professions Personnel Training Act.

Yet much remains to be done.

There is a need right now for one-half million more workers in health services. For the next 10 years, the need will be for 10,000 more each month, not counting replacements.

Last year, in response to the President's request for greater emphasis on training in the health occupations, the Department of Labor, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the Veterans Administration increased the output of trainees in health occupations by about 50 percent—to 200,000 persons.

But the need is not merely for new recruits:

—We must bring back into the health occupations inactive nurses and other professionals—so the Government has joined with the American Nurses Association and other professional associations to encourage such reentry and to provide refresher training.

—We must learn to use present manpower resources more effectively—to redesign jobs or create new ones, so that professional workers can use their highest skills while supporting personnel take over the less demanding tasks.

—We need to make pay, working conditions, and career opportunities more attractive to health workers.

—Above all, we need close cooperation among private health service agencies, training institutions, and the Government—in efforts to increase training capacity and raise the level of productivity in all occupations.

Accomplishments in these areas will help to slow the rise in the price of health care—which has in recent months been more rapid than in that of any other category of goods and services, and which threatens to go even further.

### Steps in Other Directions

The recommendations of the Task Force on Occupational Training in Industry, which will report to the Secretaries of Commerce and of Labor within a few months, will permit the shaping of new efforts to promote and assist private training programs and thereby to improve the efficiency of the national productive effort.

The Cabinet Committee on Price Stability is embarking on a new course of Government action to develop the steps that can be taken—in industries which are the source of persistent inflation—to improve technology and efficiency, and remove bottlenecks. This will involve a review of the ways by which present manpower programs can be developed to provide better training of new entrants, faster recruitment, upgrading, innovative training throughout the individual's working life, and the identification of manpower bottlenecks.

One particularly important factor in this situation is that substantial human resources are idle or deteriorating as a result of changes in the location of economic opportunity.

Many of the most serious urban and rural problems result from these changes.

Consideration must be given to the possibility of measures to influence the location of jobs and workers, so that they will be mutually accessible. This means exploring the implications for public policy and action of existing trends in science and technology and their effect on the location of jobs and people. But the matter is much broader than science and technology, or employment and manpower, or economics and material things; it has broad implications regarding the quality of our national life.

A beginning has been made in studying this matter, especially in the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, and Housing and Urban Development. Some findings have been presented to the Congress in the Annual Report of the Economic Development Administration and the Annual Report of the Council of Economic Advisers. An examination of these problems is contained in the chapter of this report on *Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development.*

## THE QUALITY OF LIFE AT WORK

What a man's or woman's work is like and what employment means are crucial to the quality of American life.

There is the danger of forgetting that the ultimate purpose of the economy—and of employment as a part of it—is to satisfy the needs of individuals, instead of the other way around.

We must begin to consider and examine the *meaning* of employment—in terms of human satisfactions—going beyond the earnings it provides.

The full significance of work can be identified only through examination of all the varied gratifications—and deprivations—to which it leads. We are undertaking that examination—to the extent at least of finding out how far such questions as these can be answered:

—Can the satisfaction and dissatisfaction experienced by different groups in the labor force be measured in any reliable, meaningful way?

—What are the range and effect of the incentives that motivate people to work?

—In what circumstances and under what conditions are the satisfactions of work greater—or less?

—What kinds of trends in satisfaction and dissatisfaction are indicated as a result of changes in technology?

—Are there practical ways of taking these considerations into account as part of a commercial enterprise?

A preliminary assessment of the possibilities on the frontiers of manpower concern—including those that go to the matter of the quality of employment as well as its quantity—is provided in the chapter of this report titled *New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures.*

## THE REALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

There is a great momentum now in the effort to solve the country's manpower problems. The broadening of this effort and the quickening of its pace will clearly result in substantially eliminating in the foreseeable future *problem unemployment.* This momentum will carry us on to an engagement on all fronts with *problem employment.*

The term "manpower" derives from "horsepower." But man's expectation is greater than to be placed in the same harness. "Full employment" is not just Everyman at work, laboring, to be fed and housed in return. It is the use of all his talents—activity of a satisfying kind—an essential part of whatever it is life will some day, perhaps, be found to mean. And it is opportunity to develop and use his talents on an equal basis with all Americans.

The report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders indicates the kinds of steps we must take to make equal opportunity a reality for all of the Nation's citizens, both black and white.

It makes a number of urgent recommendations with respect to employment, as well as education, welfare, and housing.

The new and enlarged manpower programs already underway or soon to be launched—with Government leadership and financial support and active cooperation from private industry—represent major forward steps in several directions recommended by the Commission. Its other manpower recommendations are under active consideration.

However, the Commission's report will be effective only as there is public awareness that behind all the analyses, programs, and policies lies a much deeper question: What sort of society are we to be in America? The report is, in form, a report to the President. It will achieve its purpose only as it is recognized as essentially a report to the American people—depending for its effectiveness on the response it evokes from people as individuals.

More and better jobs for the disadvantaged are, of course, essential to overcome the sub-employment rate of 30 percent or more in many ghettos. It is likewise essential to refashion our city centers, to break intolerable restrictions on housing, to enable workers in downtown slums to follow jobs to the suburbs.

But a real breakthrough into full racial equality lies beyond the reach of government, or law, or regulation.

There is demanded of the majority—who to an overwhelming extent command the wealth, the opportunity, and the power in their communities—a more personal dedication to the achievement of civil rights and equality of opportunity. Without this, the statutes on these subjects may be in the books, but they will not be in the cities.

## THE DEPARTMENT'S MANPOWER REPORT

This sixth *Manpower Report* by the Department of Labor assesses our national accomplishments and shortcomings in moving toward full and equal opportunity for meaningful jobs and satisfying employment conditions for all workers. It is concerned with the efforts we are making to achieve further progress in these directions—with the issues to be confronted, the obstacles to be overcome, the program strategies likely to be most effective.

The report reflects a greatly broadened view of the goals and concerns of manpower policy, as compared with the rather simplistic emphasis on overall increases in employment and reduction of unemployment when the first *Manpower Report* was issued in 1963.

As the following chapters make plain, the focus of manpower policy is and must be on overcoming the special barriers to employment of the disadvantaged, many of them members of minority groups. And consideration must be given not merely to the numbers of jobs available but also to their quality—in terms of wages, job security, promotional opportunity, and the chance for participation in "mainstream" economic and social life.

This broad view of the concerns of manpower policy dictates an equally broad approach to remedial action. Programs to aid disadvantaged individuals and groups must be guided by understanding of the educational, cultural, sociological, and psychological barriers to their employment and how these can be overcome. And there must be consideration not only of the problems of special groups but of the great geographic differences in employment opportunities and economic prospects.

The various chapters of this report together portray the great variety and complexity of present manpower problems and of the needed remedial programs and approaches. They make plain the variety of disciplines and methods which must be called upon in these efforts.

The report breaks new ground also through its systematic review of the current state of knowledge of the major manpower problem areas and the suggestions it makes regarding needed informational improvements. These suggestions constitute a tentative agenda for government agencies and private organizations concerned with fact-finding and research in the manpower field—an agenda upon which the Department of Labor will act.

Willard Wirtz

*Secretary of Labor.*

# 2

# NEW PERSPECTIVES ON MANPOWER PROBLEMS AND MEASURES

# NEW PERSPECTIVES ON MANPOWER PROBLEMS AND MEASURES

This chapter has two chief aims—to take a broad new look at the major problem areas of concern to manpower policy and to point the way toward more comprehensive and sensitive measures of progress and problems in these areas.

The achievement of high levels of employment was made a national objective more than two decades ago, by the Employment Act of 1946. But it is little more than 5 years since this country undertook an active manpower policy calling for direct, affirmative action to enable the jobless and underemployed to achieve satisfactory employment and, at the same time, to meet employers' needs for workers. Even in these few years it has become apparent that manpower policy must be a broadly conceived, dynamic instrument—concerned with a wide range of shifting and emerging problems—and that assessment of progress in manpower problem areas is therefore a highly complex undertaking, requiring a variety of evolving measures and techniques.

When the first *Manpower Report* was issued in 1963, the overall rate of unemployment was persistently high (5.7 percent that year, on the average). Because of this, the goal of primary concern was necessarily to achieve a more rapid rate of economic and employment growth—through economic and fiscal measures, coupled with training and other manpower measures to overcome the dislocations of workers brought about by technological and other change.

The great expansion in employment and reduction in unemployment achieved during the past 5 years testify to the success of these efforts. But the overall employment gains have also brought into sharper focus the plight of those by-passed by the general prosperity.

As the President said in his message on Manpower delivered to the Congress in January:

> The question for our day is this: In an economy capable of sustaining high employment, how can we assure every American who is willing to work the right to earn a living?

The President then outlined the programs that are being undertaken to enable the hard-core unemployed to enter productive employment (as further discussed in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs later in this report). These programs, and related efforts to meet the training and employment needs of disadvantaged workers with long periods of joblessness, now have top priority among the Nation's manpower programs. Accordingly, if statistics on unemployment and other manpower measures are to serve as indicators of our most urgent present problems, they must now focus on the groups with extended unemployment—how many, who and where they are, and what can be gleaned as to the nature of their problems.

But manpower policy is and must be concerned with more than long-term unemployment. The chronically underemployed—those able to get only part-time jobs or irregular work—are likely to be worse off than many workers with even fairly extended periods of joblessness. And people so discouraged or alienated that they are not even looking for work may well be in the worst situation of all. Both of these groups have a high claim for attention in manpower programs and consequently in factfinding on current manpower problems.

The horizons of concern in manpower policy are much wider than this, however: they must take account of the many-sided significance of work in our economy and society. Work is the generally accepted basis for success and social status, as well as earning a living. The kind of job a worker has and the conditions of his employment greatly affect his and his family's everyday life. And the contribution workers make to the national output of goods and services is a major determinant of economic growth and advances in living standards for the American people.

Thus, a number of broad manpower objectives or problem areas can be identified, in addition to the reduction of joblessness and underemployment. The adequacy of workers' earnings is an area of obvious importance, demanding consideration from many angles—among them, how wages compare with accepted minimum standards, how many workers still have earnings below the poverty line, and whether the trend of earnings provides a rising standard of living or at least keeps up with living costs.

Adequate provision for income maintenance when workers are involuntarily unemployed, disabled, or retired is also an important area. When a worker lacks adequate income protection, a protracted spell of unemployment, a serious accident or illness, or retirement may force not only the worker but also his dependents into poverty.

The quality of employment—physically, psychologically, and socially—is another area that has a crucial relation to worker well-being, and with which manpower policy must be concerned. The same is true of equality of opportunity for education and training, employment, and earnings.

Widening the opportunities and options open to workers and potential workers is still another important and very broad manpower objective, closely related to the quest for equality of opportunity. Pathways to this objective are many—including giving people the opportunity to maximize their abilities through education and training, removing discriminatory and other barriers to mobility and freedom of job choice, and providing more opportunities for meaningful participation in our economy and society (on a volunteer as well as a paid basis and for youth and the old, as well as for people in the middle age groups).

In addition to these objectives, which all bear directly on the welfare of workers and their dependents, manpower policy is concerned with meeting the manpower requirements of our economy and society. Here, the questions in need of assessment include the extent and nature of current labor shortages and manpower imbalances, prospective manpower requirements, and the changes in rates of training and job market mechanisms essential to meet manpower demands.

This chapter explores the critical dimensions of current problems and recent progress in most of these major areas of manpower concern, as indicated by the presently available data. It also makes clear the data gaps and inadequacies that have hampered this assessment and points to needed improvements in factfinding and analysis.

It is fortunate that, in working toward these informational advances, we can build on a system of manpower statistics which is already one of the most advanced in the world. But manpower problems are constantly shifting, and realization of their complexity and of the variety of policies and action programs required to meet them has increased. The related data-collection programs and techniques of assessment should be equally dynamic. One of the chief purposes of this chapter is to point the way in this direction.

Several important areas of manpower concern could not be covered in this initial effort—for example, worker mobility, development of skills and other abilities, and many aspects of working conditions. There is need to move ahead in meeting informational deficiencies in these areas, as well as those discussed below. Furthermore, the development of a comprehensive set of manpower indicators and their use in analyzing—or even ultimately in predicting—manpower problems and program needs should be the long-run goal, as suggested in the concluding section of the chapter.

The framework developed in the chapter will provide a basis for planning the conceptual analysis, factfinding, and research essential to these objectives. The Department of Labor will undertake leadership in this planning, in consultation with other governmental and private organizations concerned with manpower problems and their measurement.

Private research has already made indispensable contributions in many areas. Continued, major contributions from many individuals and private research organizations as well as Government agencies will be essential to meet the needs and realize the potentials for increased knowledge of manpower problems here outlined.

# Joblessness and Underemployment

How many American workers have had prolonged periods of unemployment in the last few years of general economic prosperity? For how many is unemployment a recurrent or omnipresent threat? And how many others are chronically underemployed? Who and where are these workers? What progress are we making in reducing their numbers and in mitigating the problems of those most disadvantaged?

To begin developing answers to questions such as these, it is necessary to go behind the overall counts and average rates of unemployment and look at the diverse situations of the different groups of unemployed individuals. Unemployed workers differ not only in the length of time they are out of work but also in their financial needs and responsibilities, work experience, place of residence, education and skills, and other personal attributes which greatly influence their chances of employment.

That unemployment can have devastating consequences is very plain in the case, for example, of laid-off workers who are unable to find new jobs for many weeks or months, especially those with families to support and no savings to draw upon; or of unskilled workers, particularly in urban slums, who can get only brief, temporary jobs, separated by repeated periods of unemployment. On the other hand, for young people who have just finished school and are looking for their first jobs, for women seeking to reenter the labor force, and for workers who quit jobs voluntarily in search of better ones, unemployment may be a transitional experience with relatively little impact on their economic and social situation.

Workers who experience prolonged unemployment—and often need training and other help in obtaining jobs—are the chief focus of concern in manpower programs and in indicators of worker well-being. There are also two other groups who must be considered—people who are working part time or below their skill level, and those who are jobless and want work but are not looking for jobs because they believe none are available to them or because of a variety of remediable difficulties. Since they are not seeking work, people in this situation are not counted as unemployed. But they are likely to be among the most disadvantaged in the country.

Two sets of statistics from the Current Population Survey can be drawn upon as indicators of the impact of joblessness and underemployment. The CPS data most widely quoted in the press are the monthly estimates of unemployment, labor force participation, and other relevant measures for many different population groups. Annual averages of these monthly data indicate, for example, how many and what proportion of workers were unemployed in an average week.

The Current Population Survey is also the source of a different set of measures relating to workers' employment and unemployment experience throughout the calendar year. This work-experience information is collected yearly. It provides estimates of the total number unemployed for as long as a week at any time during the year, not merely the number unemployed in a single week. And it shows the total number of weeks of unemployment experienced by workers during the year, either continuously or in different spells, whereas the monthly data on duration of unemployment show only the number of weeks workers were continuously unemployed up to the time of the survey.

Both sets of data provide important insights into the problems of unemployment and underemployment, and both are drawn upon in the following discussion. The monthly estimates of unemployment have the great advantage of currency and provide valuable items of information not now available from the work-experience data. Nevertheless, these latter data are those which have been found most valuable and have been relied on most heavily in this chapter.

The average monthly unemployment rates do not tell the full story of the impact of unemployment on people. Much more meaningful are the work-experience data on the numbers of workers with many weeks or months of joblessness during the year. These data make plain why the country needs large-scale training and other antipoverty programs aimed at equipping the hard-core unemployed for productive work and aiding their job adjustment.

## UNEMPLOYMENT

Over 11 million[1] American workers were jobless and looking for work at some time during the prosperous year 1966. This was almost four times the average number (2.9 million) unemployed in any one week of the year.[2] The total number out of work during 1967 was probably somewhat higher. Great progress in reducing unemployment has been made, however, since 1961, when the current economic upturn began. During that recession year, about 15 million workers had periods of unemployment.

The period without work was short (1 to 4 weeks) for over 45 percent of the workers unemployed in 1966. Presumably, unemployment for many of them was due largely to voluntary job changes, some delay in finding work upon entry or reentry into the labor force, and the usual seasonal layoffs. Many secured jobs without outside help. And for those who sought or needed assistance through manpower programs, this help was limited in most cases to job placement services.

The 3.4 million workers with 5 to 14 weeks of unemployment in 1966 may be regarded as an "in between" group. For many of these workers—as well as for those with still briefer periods without work—unemployment was a transitional experience, often cushioned to some extent by unemployment insurance and other benefits. But this group undoubtedly included many workers for whom unemployment of 14 weeks, or even 5 weeks, had serious financial consequences.

Joblessness had hard and unequivocal implications, however, for the 2.7 million workers who were out of work for 15 or more weeks in 1966—over a fourth of the year. More than 1 million of these workers—in cities, towns, and rural areas across the country—spent half or more of 1966 jobless and looking for work.

These data on the weeks of unemployment workers experienced throughout the year provide by far the best picture of the impact of joblessness on individuals, and of the magnitude of the groups most subject to unemployment and most likely to need training or other manpower services. This is made plain when one compares the figures cited above with those on continuous duration of unemployment from the monthly labor force surveys. About four times as many workers had 5 or more weeks without work during 1966 as is suggested by the monthly data. For the number out of work 15 to 26 weeks, the corresponding ratio was almost 5½ to 1.

Any complacency as to the limited impact of extended unemployment among men in the central age groups, who are generally the most employable and have the heaviest family responsibilities, should be ended by these data. Close to 1.3 million men aged 25 to 44 had 5 or more weeks of unemployment during 1966, almost six times the number (226,000) shown by the monthly surveys. (See table 1.) For men of this age group out of work 15 to 26 weeks, the differential between the two estimates was even greater (more than sevenfold—342,000, compared with 48,000). Clearly, the number of men of prime working age who are severely affected by joblessness is much higher than is indicated by the monthly unemployment data. And, to a lesser degree, the same is true for women.

With respect to the groups most affected by unemployment—the young, the poorly educated, the unskilled, older workers, and minority groups—the unemployment data based on experience during the year as a whole tell roughly the same comparative story as do the monthly estimates. However, the incidence of extended unemployment is shown to be greater in all groups than is suggested by the monthly figures for these groups (which are

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[1] *The number of persons who were unemployed for at least 1 week during the year includes persons who looked for work but did not work during the year.*

[2] *As noted in this report, the definition of unemployment used in the monthly estimates of unemployment was changed somewhat in 1967. A discussion of the principal changes appears in the chapter on Trends in Employment and Unemployment. Data based on the monthly estimates used in the present chapter relate to 1961 and 1966 and do not reflect the new definitions. In those years the unemployed included those persons who did not work at all during the survey week and were looking for work. Also included as unemployed were those who did not work at all during the survey week and (1) who were waiting either to be called back to a job from which they had been laid off or to report to a new wage or salary job scheduled to start within the following 30 days (and were not in school during the survey week), or (2) who would have been looking for work except that they were temporarily ill or believed no work was available in their line of work or in the community.*

*The definition of unemployment used in the survey of work experience during a year is similar to that used in the monthly estimates prior to 1967, although the data are derived somewhat differently. All persons who worked from 1 to 49 weeks during the year are classified according to the reason describing how they spent most of the weeks in which they did not work. Nonwork activities are categorized as unemployment or layoff from a job, illness or disability (not including paid sick leave), taking care of home or family, going to school, and other activities. A single week during which a person did not work was assigned to only one category, following a system that assigned first priority to unemployment or layoff and otherwise proceeded in the order listed. Persons without work experience in 1966 are classified according to their main reason for not working, based upon replies to a specific question. The reasons enumerated are roughly the same as the categories used for part-year workers.*

Table 1. Ratio of Unemployment as Measured by Work-Experience Survey to Average of Monthly Unemployment Estimates, by Duration Category, 1966

| Age | Men | | | | Women | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total, 5 weeks and over | 5 to 14 weeks | 15 to 26 weeks | 27 weeks or more | Total, 5 weeks and over | 5 to 14 weeks | 15 to 26 weeks | 27 weeks or more |
| Total, 16 years and over | 4.6 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| 16 and 17 years | 1.8 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 7.0 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| 18 and 19 years | 3.8 | 3.3 | 5.1 | 4.3 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 2.9 |
| 20 to 24 years | 6.6 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.8 | 4.2 | 3.3 | 7.1 | 5.7 |
| 25 to 34 years | 5.8 | 6.6 | 6.9 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.7 | 5.3 |
| 35 to 44 years | 5.7 | 6.4 | 7.3 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 4.6 |
| 45 to 64 years | 4.6 | 5.2 | 6.3 | 2.5 | 4.5 | 3.7 | 6.1 | 5.1 |
| 65 years and over | 2.8 | 2.1 | 3.5 | 3.1 | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |

Note: See footnote 2, p.18, for definitions of these measures.

discussed at length in the chapter on Trends in Employment and Unemployment).

The widely noted 2-to-1 ratio in the extent of unemployment between nonwhite and white workers is borne out once more by these data. About 12 percent of all nonwhite workers had 5 weeks or more of unemployment in 1966, compared with 6 percent of all white workers. Most seriously affected were the nonwhites who were unskilled laborers—1 out of every 5 was unemployed for 5 or more weeks during 1966. (See table 2.)

The major achievements of the past 5 years in reducing unemployment—particularly long-term unemployment—must not be lost sight of, however. Despite very large additions to the work force between 1961 and 1966, the proportion of workers unemployed for 5 or more weeks of the year was cut nearly in half (from 11.6 to 6.4 percent). (See table 3.) The general expansion in employment—aided by training and other programs focused on workers with persistent difficulty in finding jobs—brought an even sharper drop in the proportion of workers unemployed 15 weeks or more (from 6.3 percent in 1961 to 2.8 percent in 1966). The improvement was sharpest in the proportion unemployed 27 weeks or more (which fell from 2.8 to 1 percent). Both white and nonwhite workers benefited from this reduction in extended unemployment.

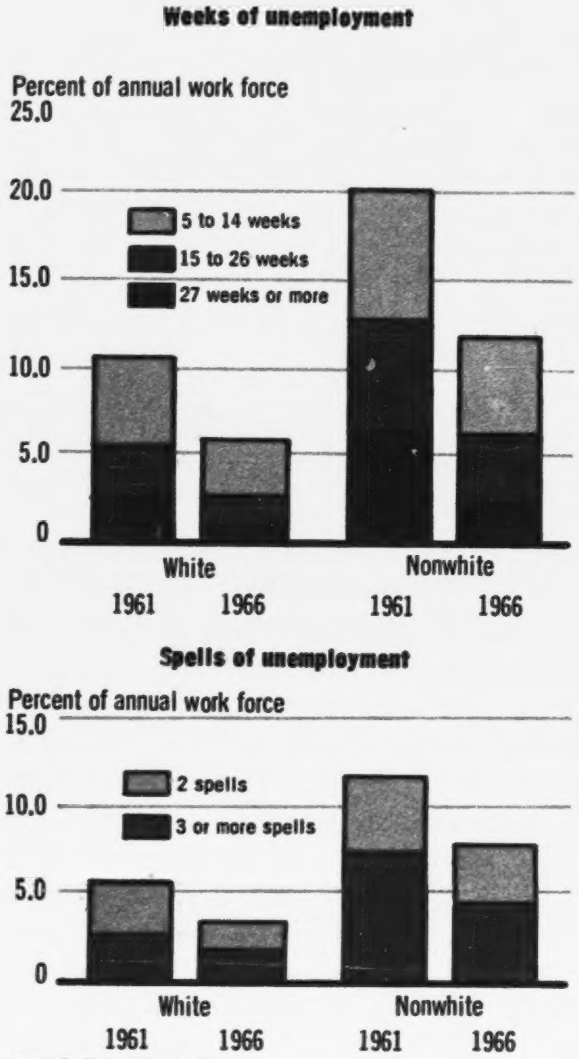
The proportion of workers experiencing repeated spells of joblessness has also dropped significantly. Whereas in 1961, 6.2 percent of the work force had two or more periods of unemployment during the year, by 1966 the figure had fallen to 4 percent. And the proportion of workers reporting at least three spells of unemployment decreased nearly as much (from 3.3 to 2.3 percent).

Nevertheless, the proportion of workers with repeated spells of unemployment did not decline as much, in relative terms, as the overall proportion of workers with many weeks of joblessness. (See chart 1.) This statistical finding has both economic and policy significance. The improvement in economic conditions, reinforced by manpower programs, has been particularly effective in reducing the number of workers continuously unemployed for long periods; it has, for example, made it much easier for displaced workers to find new jobs. But apparently there has been less progress in reducing irregular or casual employment of unskilled workers or, as yet, in mitigating seasonal layoffs.

Most workers who experience extended unemployment are out of work two or more times during the year. Of the men out of work 15 or more weeks in 1966, 7 out of every 10 were unemployed at least twice during the year. Of those with 27 weeks or more of unemployment, also 7 out of 10 had at least two spells of unemployment, and 4 out of every 10 had three or more spells.

CHART 1

**Proportion of workers with extended unemployment has declined sharply... proportion with repeated spells of unemployment has dropped much less.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

These findings underline the need for enlarged efforts to enable the chronically unemployed to qualify for and obtain jobs that promise continuity of employment. There is also a need to explore ways of helping these workers to keep the jobs they get.

## UNDEREMPLOYMENT

Unemployment is but one form—albeit the most extreme—of underutilization of workers. In theory at least, any worker who is functioning at less than his full productive potential may be regarded as underutilized. And in this sense, there are probably very few people who are not underutilized to some extent. Full realization of everyone's maximum potential is an ultimate goal of our democracy, toward which all manpower development efforts are directed. However, a more limited and immediate target is essential to both the development of manpower programs and the assessment of current manpower problems. For present purposes, it is sufficient to consider two types of underemployment.[3]

The first is *part-time employment* of workers desiring full-time jobs, which can be thought of also as part-time unemployment. This is the most easily measurable form of underemployment.

*Workers with jobs below their educational or skill level* are another significant group of underemployed. Such underemployed workers include, for example, college graduates who have to take relatively low-skilled jobs because of a shortage of suitable employment opportunities or because of discriminatory hiring practices. The laid-off miners who are working as subsistence farmers provide another example. However, the definition and measurement of this group involve difficult theoretical and practical problems. Much further work will be required before the numbers and kinds of workers involved in this waste of skills can be determined.[4]

With respect to *part-time employment*, there are the same two basic sources of data as on unemployment. The monthly labor force surveys yield estimates of the numbers working less than 35 hours in a specified week either voluntarily or for economic reasons, together with a wealth of related information. Relevant data from the annual work-experience surveys are much more meager, but provide estimates of the numbers of workers employed only part time in the majority of weeks when they had any work during the year.

About 2 million workers were on part time for economic reasons in an average week of 1966. The curtailment in employment and earnings opportunity for these workers was sizable. On the average, they were able to get only about 20 hours work per

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[3] *Part-year employment* of people who desire year-round work but are subject to intermittent or seasonal spells of joblessness is sometimes regarded as a third category of underutilization. In the approach used here, however, these people are counted with the unemployed.

[4] One possible approach to measurement of the group is by way of the occupational imbalances between whites and nonwhites at comparable levels of education. (See *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 130.)

### TABLE 2. PERCENT OF PERSONS WITH WORK EXPERIENCE WHO HAD SPECIFIED NUMBERS OF WEEKS AND SPELLS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY COLOR AND OCCUPATION, 1966[1]

| Color and occupation | 5 weeks or more | 15 weeks or more | 27 weeks or more | 2 spells or more | 3 spells or more |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **WHITE** | | | | | |
| Total | 5.7 | 2.4 | 0.8 | 3.5 | 1.9 |
| Professional and technical workers | 2.1 | .7 | .3 | .9 | .5 |
| Farmers and farm managers | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 1.8 | .6 | .2 | .7 | .4 |
| Clerical workers | 4.3 | 1.7 | .6 | 2.1 | .9 |
| Sales workers | 4.4 | 2.1 | .9 | 2.4 | 1.1 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 7.8 | 2.8 | .6 | 5.9 | 3.7 |
| Operatives | 9.2 | 3.9 | 1.2 | 5.7 | 3.0 |
| Private household workers | 5.6 | 2.4 | .9 | 4.3 | 2.4 |
| Service workers, exc. private household | 6.4 | 3.0 | 1.3 | 3.6 | 1.9 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 6.7 | 2.9 | 1.8 | 4.9 | 3.3 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 13.9 | 6.7 | 2.2 | 9.6 | 6.3 |
| **NONWHITE** | | | | | |
| Total | 11.7 | 6.3 | 2.3 | 7.8 | 4.7 |
| Professional and technical workers | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Farmers and farm managers | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Clerical workers | 7.4 | 4.8 | 1.8 | 4.4 | 1.7 |
| Sales workers | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 14.5 | 9.2 | 3.0 | 9.5 | 7.0 |
| Operatives | 14.4 | 6.6 | 2.5 | 8.3 | 4.8 |
| Private household workers | 7.7 | 4.5 | 2.2 | 6.0 | 3.9 |
| Service workers, exc. private household | 12.2 | 6.8 | 2.5 | 7.4 | 4.3 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 13.0 | 6.8 | 2.6 | 12.6 | 8.1 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 19.4 | 10.3 | 3.3 | 14.6 | 9.2 |

[1] Excludes persons who looked for work but who did not work in 1966. The rates would be somewhat higher if they were included.

NOTE: Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

week. A bare majority of these workers were usually employed full time but were temporarily on part time, most often because of slack work. However, nearly a million were usually able to obtain only part-time work, for reasons shown by the following figures:

| *Reasons for part-time work* | *Number of workers on part time for economic reasons, 1966* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Total* | *Usually work full time* | *Usually work part time* |
| Total | 1,960 | 1,009 | 951 |
| Slack work | 881 | 710 | 171 |
| Material shortages | 27 | 26 | 1 |
| Repairs | 34 | 34 | ------- |
| New job | 177 | 160 | 17 |
| Job ended | 74 | 62 | 12 |
| No full-time work available | 766 | 16 | 750 |

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Most of the workers who normally can get only part-time work are in trade and service industries, including household employment. The majority are women. Among the part-time workers who usually work full time, however, the majority are men, and more of them are in manufacturing than in any other major industry group.[5]

Nonwhite workers are disproportionately affected by part-time employment, as by total unemployment. They are often entrapped in chronic part-time work, mainly in service jobs, as is indicated by the following 1966 figures for workers in nonagricultural industries:

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[5] For more information on part-time workers, see app. tables A-21, A-22, and A-23.

| *Work schedule* | *Percent of workers who were nonwhite* |
|---|---|
| On full-time schedules | 10.2 |
| On part-time for economic reasons: | |
| Usually worked full time | 18.4 |
| Usually worked part time | 32.6 |

To arrive at a satisfactory indicator of employment disadvantage, it is essential to consider the impact of partial unemployment suggested by these figures, as well as total unemployment. Unfortunately, the data on part-time employment in an average week cannot be combined with the even more crucial estimates of the numbers unemployed for more than a specified number of weeks out of the year. The two sets of figures are not comparable and could overlap to a serious extent.

A very rough estimate was arrived at by relating the two sets of data in different, logical ways. This estimate relates to people underemployed in 1966, in the sense that they usually worked part time but wanted full-time employment and had not had a substantial amount of unemployment during the year (5 or more weeks). It appears that the number of underemployed workers, as thus defined, was probably in the neighborhood of 1 to 1½ million.

By definition, the underemployed are a group with limited work opportunity and consequently curtailed income. In all probability, many of the workers included are living in poverty. The wide range of uncertainty as to the size and character of this group is, thus, a major obstacle in assessing the extent of employment hardship. It is one which should be overcome through additional information (as outlined in the later discussion of informational needs).

## PEOPLE NOT LOOKING FOR WORK WHO WANT JOBS

Many people who are neither working nor seeking work want and need jobs. Evidence to this effect has accumulated in recent years. For example:

—The proportion of men below normal retirement age who are out of the work force has been rising, especially among nonwhites.

—A high proportion of youth in slum areas who have dropped out of school are neither working nor seeking work.

Table 3. Percent of Persons With Work Experience Who Had Specified Numbers of Weeks and Spells of Unemployment, by Sex and Age, 1961 and 1966 [1]

| Sex and age | 1961 [2] | | | | | 1966 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 5 weeks or more | 15 weeks or more | 27 weeks or more | 2 spells or more | 3 spells or more | 5 weeks or more | 15 weeks or more | 27 weeks or more | 2 spells or more | 3 spells or more |
| Both sexes, total | 11.6 | 6.3 | 2.8 | 6.2 | 3.3 | 6.4 | 2.8 | 1.0 | 4.0 | 2.3 |
| Men, 16 years and over | 13.2 | 7.0 | 2.9 | 7.2 | 4.0 | 6.7 | 2.8 | 1.0 | 4.4 | 2.7 |
| 16 and 17 years | 7.7 | 3.7 | 2.1 | 4.6 | 2.1 | 9.0 | 4.5 | 2.2 | 6.1 | 4.0 |
| 18 to 24 years | 22.4 | 11.3 | 5.0 | 12.7 | 6.1 | 10.4 | 4.2 | 1.3 | 7.3 | 4.3 |
| 25 to 44 years | 13.6 | 7.0 | 2.6 | 7.4 | 4.3 | 6.1 | 2.2 | .6 | 3.9 | 2.3 |
| 45 to 64 years | 11.3 | 6.4 | 2.7 | 6.2 | 3.6 | 5.7 | 2.8 | 1.0 | 3.7 | 2.4 |
| 65 years and over | 6.8 | 4.6 | 2.3 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 2.9 | 1.5 | 3.0 | 1.9 |
| Women, 16 years and over | 8.8 | 5.1 | 2.4 | 4.4 | 2.1 | 5.9 | 2.7 | 1.0 | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| 16 and 17 years | 3.1 | 2.3 | 1.1 | 1.9 | .5 | 5.5 | 2.0 | .5 | 4.0 | 2.2 |
| 18 to 24 years | 13.4 | 6.9 | 2.7 | 7.0 | 2.9 | 7.8 | 3.3 | 1.1 | 4.3 | 2.1 |
| 25 to 44 years | 9.3 | 5.4 | 2.6 | 4.4 | 2.2 | 5.5 | 2.4 | .9 | 2.7 | 1.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 7.8 | 4.7 | 2.4 | 3.9 | 2.1 | 5.3 | 2.8 | 1.2 | 3.1 | 1.7 |
| 65 years and over | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |

[1] Excludes persons who looked for work but who did not work. The rates would be somewhat higher if they were included.

[2] Data for 14- and 15-year-olds are included in the 16- and 17-year-old groups and in the totals.

Note: Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

—Persons with limited education are more likely to be out of the labor force than those with more education.

—A large number of older workers—including many with retirement benefits—both need and wish to continue in paid employment.

—Many women who want to work, either to support themselves and their families or to supplement their husband's income, report that they cannot do so for lack of child-care facilities.

—Illness and disability prevent many persons from working in physically demanding occupations and sometimes keep them from working at any job. Long-term disabilities also tend to discourage persons from even looking for work.

To get more definite information on how many people not in the labor force want to work and the reasons why they are not seeking jobs, the Department of Labor recently made a series of special studies. The most comprehensive of these studies showed that, in September 1966,[6] 5.3 million men and women—1 out of every 10 of those outside the labor force—wanted a job. The other 9 out of 10 said they did not desire a regular job. However, the information obtained from the latter group did not permit probing into the conditions under which they might consider working nor into their possible need for additional income.

When those desiring work were asked why they were not looking for jobs, the reasons most often cited were ill health, school attendance, family responsibilities, or belief that they could not find jobs. (See table 4.) Presumably, the impediments to jobs could be overcome for many of these people by better health care, arrangements for child care, school-work programs, referral to suitable jobs, and other services.

The ¾ million people—over 250,000 men and nearly 500,000 women—who were not looking for work because they believed it would be impossible to find any were the group of probably greatest concern from the viewpoint of manpower policy. Presumably many had given up the search for work after fruitless and discouraging job-finding efforts. In addition, nearly as large a number of women cited inability to arrange for child care as the specific reason why they were not looking for jobs.

It is also significant that close to 400,000 of the group not looking for work because of ill health

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[6] For a full report on the findings of this survey, see Robert L. Stein, "Reasons for Nonparticipation in the Labor Force," *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1967, pp. 22–27, reprinted as Special Labor Force Report No. 86.

### TABLE 4. PERSONS NOT IN THE LABOR FORCE WHO WANTED A REGULAR JOB, BY REASON FOR NOT LOOKING FOR WORK, SEPTEMBER 1966

[Numbers in thousands]

| Reason | Men | | Women | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent distribution | Number | Percent distribution |
| Total | 1,641 | 100.0 | 3,651 | 100.0 |
| Believes it would be impossible to find work [1] | 266 | 16.2 | 488 | 13.4 |
| Ill health, physical disability | 480 | 29.3 | 598 | 16.4 |
| In school | 706 | 43.0 | 536 | 14.7 |
| Family responsibilities | | | 1,080 | 29.6 |
| Inability to arrange child care | | | 435 | 11.9 |
| Miscellaneous personal reasons [2] | 144 | 8.8 | 290 | 7.9 |
| Expects to be working or seeking work shortly | 44 | 2.7 | 226 | 6.2 |

[1] Includes employers think too old (or too young); couldn't find or did not believe any job (or any suitable job) was available; lacks skill, experience, education, or training; no transportation; racial discrimination; language difficulties; and pay too low.

[2] Includes old age or retirement, moving, entering or leaving Armed Forces, death in family, planning to go back to school, and no need to work at present time.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

or physical or mental disabilities said they would take part-time or light work if it were available, or said they would seek work when their health improved. However, it is not possible on the basis of the survey data to distinguish clearly between people who could be helped to enter employment and those with serious and uncorrectable handicaps.

Altogether, these data represent a major contribution to knowledge of the people not currently in the labor force who are potential workers. But the number that should be counted as underutilized is still much in doubt.

The gap in the present effort to develop indicators of employment hardship is not as great as might be inferred, however. Many of the 5.3 million people who wanted work but were not looking for it in a particular week of September 1966 had probably sought jobs earlier in the year and then stopped looking—because of discouragement, increasing ill health, return to school, or other reasons.[7] If they actually looked for jobs during 1966, they have, of course, been counted among the unemployed in the figures presented earlier.

Nevertheless, this is still an area of unfortunate doubt and incompleteness in the data on the Nation's underemployed people. It is an area where further factfinding and exploration are much needed.

## INFORMATIONAL NEEDS

### Geographic Concentrations of Joblessness and Underemployment

The concentration of unemployment and underemployment in urban slums and impoverished rural areas—the places where these problems are known to be most critical—have not been discussed in this chapter. Though plans are far advanced for a new program of studies on employment and unemployment problems in urban slum areas, to be launched by the Department of Labor in 1968, the available statistical information for such areas is still limited, in the main, to a few special surveys conducted in 1966 and reported on in last year's *Manpower Report.*[8] The following chapter on Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged summarizes some of the key findings as to the extent of joblessness and underemployment among slum residents.

The more extensive series of surveys, now being developed for slum areas, will provide regular information on employment and related problems in these areas. They will be designed to shed light upon the special employment-connected problems of urban slums and to measure their seriousness and extent. Special efforts will be made to increase understanding of the motivation of slum residents with respect to work and job hunting, training and education, and of the ways in which people in the slums survive economically. The surveys will be highly flexible and will test various approaches aimed at providing new insights into these intricate problems. The findings should provide improved guidelines for manpower programs and policies tailored to the needs of slum residents.

Intensive efforts will also be made in these surveys to obtain information on the characteristics of persons missed in censuses or other household surveys. In the past few years, much attention has been paid to the undercount of the population in census surveys. This undercount is highest (15 to 20 percent) for young nonwhite men, among whom rates of unemployment and underemployment are also extremely high. Limited data suggest that the missed population is typically of a lower socioeconomic group than the population counted. Furthermore, a large proportion of the uncounted population probably lives in urban slums, where census taking is particularly difficult. For these reasons, the new surveys will make special efforts to reach persons who might be missed in regular census surveys.

### Strengthening of Annual Work-Experience Data

Information on unemployment throughout the year has great potential value as a measure of the need for manpower policies and programs and a guide in their development. However, the present data have some serious shortcomings. Further work along the following lines would be useful, assuming that it proves to be technically feasible and resources permit its implementation.

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[7] The total number of people in the civilian work force at any time during 1966 was about 11 million larger than the number in the labor force in September. This difference in numbers was certainly accounted for in part by people not counted as workers in September, but still desiring jobs at that time.

[8] See *1967 Manpower Report,* p. 73 ff.

1. In order to have a current measure of annual unemployment, procedures should be developed to make the work-experience survey results available more promptly, and possibly to collect and publish these data quarterly.

2. Because involuntary part-time employment is a serious source of underemployment, efforts should be made to measure the impact on workers of part-time employment for economic reasons during the year as a whole. Information is needed not only on the total numbers of workers affected, but also on the extent of reduction in their working hours and on the duration and recurrence of their involuntary part-time employment.

3. Special cross tabulations of work-experience data with monthly labor force data could shed more light upon the reasons why persons are unemployed or not in the work force.

4. Information on the number of persons who look for a job—presumably a better job, or at least a different one—while they are employed would help to guide placement and training programs. No information is now available on this point.

5. Information on the duration of the longest spell of unemployment experienced by workers unemployed at any time during the year would help in assessing the significance and incidence of long-duration unemployment.

6. As a measure of the total need for job-finding efforts and of programs to help workers hold jobs, more information should be developed on spells of unemployment, cross classified by the total number of weeks of unemployment workers had during the year and by various personal characteristics.

7. Although inadequate training and education are clearly related to the incidence of unemployment, further investigation is needed to indicate the effects of these factors on the extent of unemployment throughout the year.

# Adequacy of Workers' Earnings

The dramatic rise in the average earnings of American workers is one of this country's proud achievements. There is general recognition that workers' earnings must, at minimum, keep pace with living costs and that national gains in productivity should be reflected fully in workers' rising standard of living.

The elimination of substandard wages is also an accepted national goal—and has been for 30 years, since the enactment of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (FLSA). Successive amendments to the act, culminating in those of 1966, have extended its minimum wage provisions to a larger and larger proportion of the work force and have raised the specified minimums to progressively higher levels (in dollars, if not always in terms of purchasing power). State minimum wage laws also reflect public recognition, extending many years back, of the need to protect workers against substandard wage rates.

The growing concern with inadequate annual earnings is more recent. It can be traced to the Nation's explicit commitment to eliminate poverty. Although the reduction of unemployment is an integral part of the antipoverty programs, there is realization that year-round employment of a family's chief breadwinner provides no guarantee of an annual income above the poverty threshold. In 1966, for example, nearly one-third of the Nation's poor families were headed by workers employed all year but at inadequate wages. It is hoped that the improvements in minimum wage standards under recent amendments to the FLSA will help, over the next several years, to raise wages for many of the working poor. But more extensive measures—for example, training to increase their productivity or some form of income supplements—may well be required to lift other workers in this group above the poverty level.

Another reason why the spotlight is turning more and more on the adequacy of workers' earnings is concern with inequality of income. The conviction is growing that social unrest in urban ghettos may reflect dissatisfaction with the disparity between the impoverished and the affluent, as much as with the low level of living endured by slumdwellers. Thus, knowledge about earnings is essential in evaluating the position of workers in the American economy and society. And while the first concern of manpower policy is to eliminate unemployment, a closely related concern is that those who work shall share in the national prosperity.

Accordingly, this discussion of the adequacy of workers' earnings has two focuses. It considers, first, the recent and impending improvements in minimum wage standards under the FLSA and the numbers of workers still receiving lower hourly wages. The main discussion, however, is concerned with annual earnings—and particularly with the magnitude of the low-earner problem still existing among workers with year-round, full-time employment, despite a major reduction in the extent of low earnings since the early 1960's.

## MINIMUM WAGE STANDARDS

Minimum wage standards, at both the Federal and State levels, have helped increasingly to establish a floor under workers' wages. The Fair Labor Standards Act—the Federal minimum wage law—establishes minimum wage protection for workers engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce and for employees of certain enterprises which are so engaged.

This law aims to establish a minimum standard of wages necessary for the health, efficiency, and general well-being of workers without substantially curtailing employment or earning power. The 1966 amendments to the FLSA, which became effective on February 1, 1967, broadly expanded its protections. They raised the minimum wage significantly and extended coverage to many more workers.

Between 1938, when the law was passed, and the enactment of the 1966 amendments, the level of the minimum wage was increased three times and the basic coverage of the act expanded only once. The 1966 amendments have accomplished the most far-reaching improvements since 1938 in Federal wage and hours standards, and represent a big step toward the act's goal of eliminating substandard labor conditions. When signing these amendments, the President pointed out that "The new minimum wage . . . will not support a very big family, but it will bring workers and their families a little bit above the poverty line."

### Table 5. Estimated Number of Private Nonsupervisory Employees Earning Less Than Specified Cash Wages per Hour, by Industry, February 1968

[Numbers in thousands]

| Industry | Total number of nonsupervisory employees | Employees earning cash wages of less than: | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | $1.60 | | $1.30 | | $1.15 | | $1.00 | |
| | | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Total [1] | 51, 866 | 10, 123 | 19. 5 | 7, 302 | 14. 1 | 4, 663 | 9. 0 | 3, 422 | 6. 6 |
| Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries | 1, 513 | 1, 154 | 76. 3 | 828 | 54. 7 | 509 | 33. 6 | 281 | 18. 6 |
| Retail trade (including eating and drinking places) | 9, 150 | 3, 278 | 35. 8 | 2, 040 | 22. 3 | 1, 094 | 12. 0 | 553 | 6. 0 |
| Service | 7, 589 | 3, 259 | 42. 9 | 2, 185 | 28. 8 | 1, 056 | 13. 9 | 647 | 8. 5 |
| Domestic service | 2, 223 | 2, 045 | 92. 0 | 2, 005 | 90. 2 | 1, 925 | 86. 6 | 1, 912 | 86. 0 |
| All other | 31, 391 | 387 | 1. 2 | 244 | . 8 | 79 | . 3 | 29 | . 1 |

[1] Excludes executive, administrative, and professional employees.

About 33 million of the 51.9 million nonsupervisory workers in private employment were subject to a minimum wage under the FLSA prior to the amendments. For these workers, the amendments raised the specified minimum from the previous $1.25 an hour to $1.40 effective February 1, 1967, and $1.60 on February 1, 1968.

Over 9.7 million additional workers were given protection by the amendments, including some for whom this protection will not become effective until 1969. More than 2.6 million of the newly covered workers are employed by Federal, State, and local governments. For most newly covered workers the minimum wage became $1 an hour on February 1, 1967, and $1.15 on February 1, 1968, with an additional increase to $1.30 scheduled for early 1969. For newly covered workers in nonfarm jobs (though not those in agriculture) the minimum will go still higher in following years, reaching $1.60 on February 1, 1971.

How many workers in this country still earn less than $1.60 an hour? It is estimated that about 10 million—or 1 out of every 5 nonsupervisory workers in private employment—received less than $1.60 in cash wages in February 1968. Most of these workers are in agriculture, retail trade, and the services, particularly domestic service. (See table 5.) Included are a good many workers newly covered by the FLSA—who must be paid at least $1.60 within 3 years, if they are in nonfarm jobs—as well as workers not covered by the act.

While the FLSA provides the basic wage protection in this country, 36 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have operative minimum wage laws or orders, some of which supplement the Federal minimum wage. It is estimated that as of early 1968, nearly 3.5 million workers not covered by the FLSA—mostly in retail trade and service industries—were subject to State minimum wage requirements. In five States and Puerto Rico the minimum rate in effect in February 1968 was $1.60 or more an hour.

Nearly 8.3 million workers in private employment are still unprotected by either Federal or State minimum wage requirements, however. Of this group, some 2 million work in retail trade, 2.2 million in domestic service, 1.3 million in other services, and about 900,000 in agriculture.

These fields of employment—above all, domestic service and agriculture—are where the problem of low hourly wages is most widespread and most severe. More than 4 out of every 5 workers in domestic service, and nearly 1 out of every 5 in agriculture, have money wages of under $1 an hour (though wages in kind may compensate in part for these extremely low rates).

Information is not available, however, on the personal characteristics or the family responsibilities of these workers. In order to evaluate the significance for them of low hourly wages, it would be desirable to know, for example, how many are youth still in school, retired or handicapped workers, or secondary wage earners, as well as the numbers who must support not only themselves but also dependents on the basis of their meager wages.

## ANNUAL EARNINGS

### Trends in Earnings

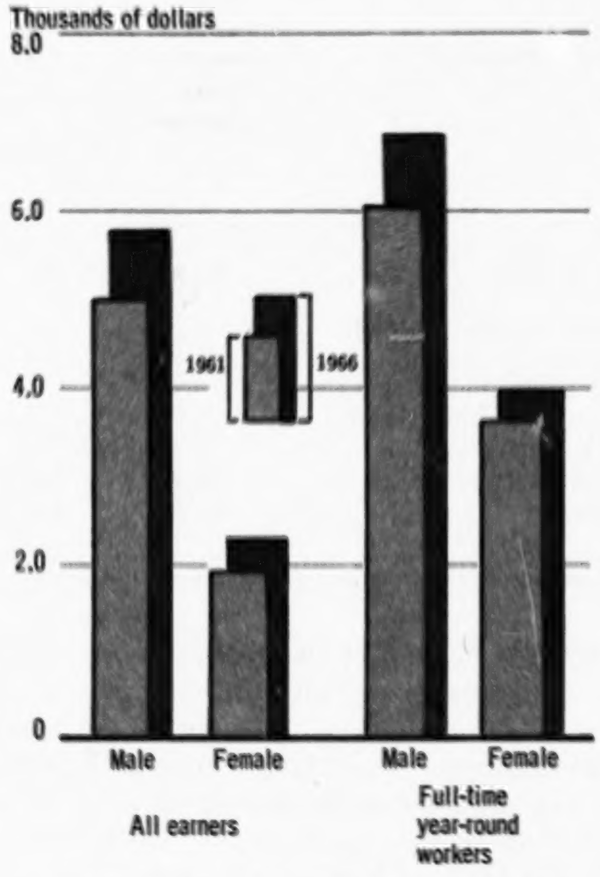
Gains in real yearly earnings (money earnings adjusted for price changes) have been sharp and unremitting in this country since before World War II. In little more than two and a half decades, white male wage earners have increased their median annual wage income by 2½ times—from $2,600 in 1939 to $6,500 in 1966.[9] White women workers nearly doubled their incomes—from $1,580 to $3,100—during the same period. For nonwhite men the dollar gain was far less—from $1,050 to $3,850—though their relative position improved substantially. And the same general findings apply to nonwhite women, whose average earnings went from $575 to $2,000.

These long-term gains reflect the ending of the great depression of the 1930's, the impact of World War II in stimulating employment, and postwar economic growth and rising wage levels. Moreover, the trend in earnings has continued strongly upward in recent years, as shown by data for the 5-year period from 1961, when the current economic upturn began, to 1966, the latest year for which figures are available.

American workers, both men and women, achieved significant increases in average earnings in these 5 years—from $5,000 to $5,800 for men and from $1,900 to $2,250 for women. (See chart 2.) These figures include workers in the labor force only part time or part year, as well as full-time workers. If the frame of reference is shifted from all earners to male year-round, full-time workers only (nearly all of whom are household heads), the average earnings level is substantially higher, but the rate of gain in earnings remains about the same. Average earnings [10] for this group advanced from $6,050 in 1961 to $6,850 in 1966.

CHART 2

**Earnings of workers increased sharply between 1961 and 1966.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce.

Of the 35.5 million men employed full time throughout 1966, 9 percent (3.2 million) earned less than $3,000. However, both the number and proportion of steadily employed men with earnings as low as this were substantially less than in 1961—a sign of continuing progress in eliminating substandard earnings as a factor in poverty.

Accompanying this decrease in the incidence of low earnings was a decided increase in the proportion of workers earning more than $10,000 a year. The persistent improvement in both these dimensions of earnings is shown by the following figures for male year-round, full-time workers:

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[9] All annual income and earnings data in this chapter are in "constant" 1966 dollars—that is, price increases since the earlier years are accounted for by converting the earnings figures to their 1966 purchasing power.

[10] Unless otherwise specified, the discussion that follows relates to total earnings from all sources during the calendar year—wage and salary income from all jobs as well as all farm and nonfarm self-employment income. For a full explanation of the earnings data, see the report *Income in 1966 of Families and Persons in the United States* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, December 28, 1967), Current Population Reports Series P-60, No. 53.

| Year | Percent who earned— |  |
|---|---|---|
|  | Under $3,000 | $10,000 or over |
| 1956 | 16.1 | 9.7 |
| 1961 | 13.2 | 16.0 |
| 1966 | 8.9 | 20.1 |

A different conclusion is arrived at, however, if progress is measured in terms of the distribution of earnings. In 1956, 1961, and also 1966, the highest paid 20 percent of all male year-round, full-time workers received 40 percent of the aggregate earnings received by such workers, whereas the lowest paid 20 percent received only about 7 percent. Though earnings have risen in absolute terms for workers at both ends of the earnings scale, there has been no improvement in the relative share received by the lowest paid fifth of all male year-round, full-time workers. In fact, the disparity between the lowest and highest paid groups has grown in dollars, though not in relative terms. (See table 6.) In other words, the gains have been proportionately distributed among workers at all earnings levels, so that there has been no lessening of the inequities in the distribution.

TABLE 6. EARNINGS OF MEN WHO WORKED YEAR ROUND, FULL TIME, 1956, 1961, AND 1966 [1]

| Item | 1956 | 1961 | 1966 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 20 percent earned more than | $7,541 | $8,640 | $10,002 |
| 20 percent earned less than | 3,388 | 3,819 | 4,417 |
| Ratio | 2.23 | 2.26 | 2.26 |

[1] Earnings for 1956 and 1961 are adjusted for price changes to 1966.

### Problems in Defining Low Earnings

The large numbers of workers who still have substandard earnings—defined for the purposes of this analysis as an earned income below $3,000 a year—are the focus of concern in the rest of this earnings discussion. Workers employed year round at full-time jobs who still make less than $3,000 are the group mainly discussed.

It should be clearly recognized that—while establishing a cutoff below which earnings might be designated as unacceptable, substandard, or inadequate—this $3,000 definition does not allow for the fact that a fixed amount of purchasing power may not go as far toward providing a generally acceptable standard of living as it might have years ago. As a Nation, we are more affluent and our values with respect to the definition of "necessities" have changed.

One indicator of the persistently changing concept of a comfortable level of living in this country is provided by the City Worker's Family Budget published by the Department of Labor. The third major revision of this budget published in 1966 differs significantly from earlier estimates. Expenditure patterns of a family seeking to maintain a moderate level of living in 1966 reflect differences in the quality and quantity of goods and services and include many items not previously considered.

The estimated annual cost of a moderate living standard for a well-established family of four was $9,200 in urban areas of the United States as of autumn 1966, reflecting a 24-percent rise in living standards from 7 years earlier.[11] The $3,000 low earnings figure used in this chapter represented only a third of the BLS moderate living standard in 1966, compared with about two-fifths in 1959. This change suggests a significant worsening of the relative position of the low earner in this country.

Perspective on the relative situation of men who earn less than $3,000 can be gained also by comparison with the median earnings for all male year-round, full-time workers. In 1961, median earnings for steadily employed males were $6,050 (in 1966 dollars) compared with $6,850 in 1966 as noted above. Although the number of regularly employed men with substandard (i.e., below $3,000) earnings fell by 1 million over the 5-year period, workers who remained in this group fared worse relative to the average steadily employed American male in 1966 than they did in 1961.

Although low earnings of family heads are an important cause of poverty, it should be noted that the $3,000 cutoff is not designed as a measure of poverty. It takes no account of supplementary sources of income or of variable family needs. Rather, it reflects the progress made so far in establishing a national standard regarding the minimum acceptable rewards for work, as expressed in the national minimum wage law. A worker paid for 50 weeks of work, averaging 40 hours each, at $1.60 an hour (the general FLSA minimum standard) would earn $3,200 for the year. In all likelihood, annual earnings of $3,200 in 1968 will have about the same purchasing power as $3,000 did in 1966, due to the steady upward trend in prices.

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[11] These estimates reflect the variation in priorities and available income from family to family as well as the costs of the items that comprise the budget. The mix of goods and services included in the total varies over time and from family to family. See *City Worker's Family Budget* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1966), BLS Bulletin No. 1570–1.

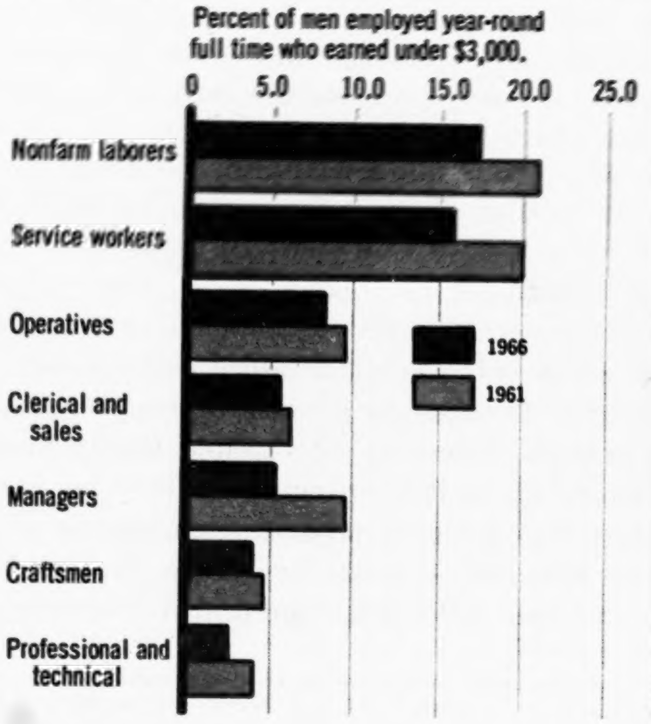
In this discussion, the $3,000 cutoff is applied to all workers regardless of family status, although substandard earnings of family heads inevitably represent a more serious social problem and therefore should perhaps receive highest priority in program planning. For this reason, the focus of the discussion is on male earners, nearly all of whom are family heads or, in a small proportion of cases, individuals living by themselves.

It is important to keep in mind that the earnings figures do not represent take-home pay, since they reflect gross income before taxes or any other deductions. Neither do they reflect earnings in kind, nor the value of non-money benefits derived from community services or from the employer-employee relationship. Many American workers have received increasingly numerous and liberal fringe benefits—paid vacations and holidays, supplemental unemployment benefits, health insurance, and so forth. The available data do not permit taking account of such benefits in any systematic way. In general, however, the workers with the lowest money earnings are those least likely to have substantial fringe benefits. And they are all too often hampered in making effective use of their limited incomes by obstacles such as inability to get credit or credit gouging, the high prices and low quality of goods frequently found in slum area stores, and lack of knowledge of good purchasing methods.

Beyond question, a man trying to support a family in an urban area in the 1960's has had and will continue to have a very difficult time managing on money earnings under $3,000 a year. Assuming that a man should be able to support his family by his own earnings—without having to rely on the earnings of his wife or children or on other sources of income such as public assistance—it is relevant to point out that $3,000 in earned income is not enough to keep any urban family of four or more above the poverty level.[12]

CHART 3

**Proportion of men with low earnings has dropped at all occupational levels.**



Note: Nonfarm occupations only.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

### Characteristics of Low Earners

Low cash earnings are most prevalent among farmers and farm laborers. Farmworkers accounted for about 3 out of every 10 low earners (annual earnings under $3,000) among male year-round, full-time workers in 1966. However, farmers and farmworkers often receive income in kind, which supplements their low money earnings to some small extent.

The incidence of low earnings among "fully employed" farmworkers, although extremely high in 1966, represented a striking improvement since 1961. The proportion making less than $3,000 dropped from 62 to 47 percent during these 5 years.

The extensive migration from farm to nonfarm areas helped to reduce the incidence of low earnings among farmworkers, because of the heavy representation of the lowest earners among the migrants. At the same time, there was definite improvement in the earnings of workers who remained on the farm and had full-time work all year.[13] Over the 5-year period, median earnings

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[12] See *Who Was Poor in 1966* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, December 6, 1967), Research and Statistics Note No. 23, table 1.

[13] Occupation, industry, and class of worker (i.e., wage and salary worker or self-employed) relate to the longest job held during the calendar year.

TABLE 7. PERCENT OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME EMPLOYED MEN WHO EARNED LESS THAN $3,000, BY INDUSTRY AND CLASS OF WORKER, 1961 AND 1966 [1]

| Industry and class of worker | 1961 | 1966 |
|---|---|---|
| Total | 13.2 | 8.9 |
| Agriculture | 60.0 | 45.1 |
| Wage and salary workers | 57.8 | 49.3 |
| Self-employed | 58.2 | 43.5 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 8.6 | 6.6 |
| Wage and salary workers | 7.1 | 5.9 |
| Mining, forestry, fisheries | 5.5 | 5.5 |
| Construction | 11.5 | 7.3 |
| Manufacturing | 4.2 | 4.3 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 3.7 | 3.7 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 12.4 | 9.4 |
| Finance and service | 10.6 | 8.8 |
| Public administration | 3.7 | 2.5 |
| Self-employed | 18.6 | 13.7 |

[1] For comparability, 1961 earnings figures are adjusted to reflect price changes between 1961 and 1966.

for farmers and farm managers went up by $1,200; for farm laborers, by $350.[14]

It must be borne in mind that these data relate only to year-round, full-time workers, and that intermittency of employment is a particularly severe and prevalent problem among farmworkers. In 1966, only 34 percent of the men whose longest job was as a farm laborer or foreman worked full time the year round, compared with an average of 70 percent for all occupational groups. Comprehensive data on yearly earnings are not yet available, however, for either farm or nonfarm workers employed only part of the year.

In most nonfarm occupation groups also, the proportion of low earners declined over the past 5 years. But occupational differences in the incidence of low earnings remained about constant. (See chart 3.)

All major industry groups made progress between 1961 and 1966 in reducing their low-earners ratios. Particularly marked improvements were recorded for trade and services. This was probably due in part to increased minimum wage coverage in trade and service establishments. As of 1966, however, low earners still represented a considerably larger proportion of the wage and salary work force in trade and services than in all nonagricultural industries. (See table 7.)

In general, the proportion of low earners differed rather moderately among the major nonfarm industry divisions, probably reflecting, for the most part, industry differences in the proportion of low-skilled workers employed. In agriculture, the proportion of low earners was much higher than in any other industry, both among self-employed farmers (44 percent) and among wage and salary workers in full-time, year-round jobs on farms (49 percent). The problems of underemployment and poverty are extreme for many farmers as well as farm laborers.[15] And they contribute heavily to the total problem of low earnings among American workers.

## Nonwhite Workers

One-fourth of the nonwhite men who worked the whole year were low earners, compared with 7 percent of the whites. Almost universally—occupation by occupation and industry by industry—steadily employed nonwhite men experienced a higher incidence of low earnings than did whites.

Differential earnings by occupational group were marked. In every occupational category, nonwhite men had a much higher incidence of low earnings than did white men. Furthermore, the concentration of nonwhites in such low-paying occupations as service jobs and unskilled labor accounts, in part, for the large overall discrepancy in earnings between white and nonwhite workers. For example, 15 percent of all nonwhite men employed all year were nonfarm laborers, as opposed to 4 percent of the white men. (See table 8.)

If nonwhite workers could move up the occupational ladder, their earnings position would of course be improved. However, the income gains would probably be smaller for them than for white men making similar occupational progress. It has been estimated (on the basis of 1966 occupational earnings) that the low-earner rate for nonwhites would still be about three times that for whites, even with the differences in occupational distribution eliminated at the major group level.

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[14] It is possible to calculate roughly the relative influence of the decrease in the farm labor force (through out-migration or shifts to nonfarm activity) as opposed to the drop in the incidence of low earnings by applying the 1961 incidence of low earnings to the 1966 farm labor force. If the 1961 incidence of low earnings still prevailed in 1966, there would have been 1.2 million low earners in 1966, compared with the 1.6 million there were in 1961. The difference between these two groups of low earners—nearly 500,000 workers—is that part of the drop in low earners that could be attributed to the decrease in the full-time, year-round farm labor force. The remaining differences between the low earners at the 1961 rate and the actual number of low earners in 1966—300,000 workers—is that part of the overall 1961 to 1966 decrease that could be attributed to the decrease in the incidence of low earnings among year-round, full-time farmworkers.

[15] For a further discussion of the problem of rural poverty, see *The People Left Behind* (Washington: President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, September 1967).

Differential earnings between whites and nonwhites were equally marked on an industry basis. The only nonagricultural industry where nonwhite wage and salary workers earning below $3,000 for the year constituted less than one-tenth of total nonwhite employment was public administration. Among white nonagricultural wage and salary workers, however, the highest incidence of low earners was 7 percent—in trade and services. The differentials in low earnings between whites and nonwhites in the major industrial sectors are shown in table 9. It is clear that nonwhites experience a share in substandard earnings that far outweighs their share in total employment in all major branches of private industry.

These figures show that steps to reduce poverty for nonwhite people must go beyond providing jobs for the unemployed or those not in the work force, beyond eradicating involuntary part-year or part-time work, and even beyond providing jobs in higher skill, higher paying occupations. In addition to these important measures, discriminatory pay scales and hiring practices must be eliminated, and the worker's earnings potential must be upgraded through better training, promotion opportunities and more job security.

## Low Earnings Among Women

If $3,000 is considered to be a cutoff for substandard earnings—that is, an inadequate return for a whole year of full-time labor—women who worked all year in 1966 were in a much less satisfactory position than men. More than 1 in 4 of the fully employed women received less than $3,000, compared with fewer than 1 in 10 of the men. Half of the women who worked all year received $3,950 or less, while the median earnings level for the men was $6,850.

TABLE 8. OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME EMPLOYED MEN AND THOSE WHO EARNED LESS THAN $3,000, BY COLOR, 1966

[Percent distribution]

| Occupation | White | | Nonwhite | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total employed | Low earners | Total employed | Low earners |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| White-collar workers | 44.9 | 26.4 | 21.0 | 10.1 |
| Professional and technical workers | 15.0 | 5.7 | 7.2 | 1.7 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 16.8 | 11.2 | 4.2 | 2.9 |
| Clerical workers | 7.4 | 5.2 | 7.6 | 4.0 |
| Sales workers | 5.7 | 4.3 | 2.0 | 1.5 |
| Blue-collar workers | 44.1 | 32.5 | 56.2 | 49.8 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 21.5 | 9.7 | 12.9 | 7.7 |
| Operatives | 18.8 | 16.4 | 28.5 | 24.5 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 3.8 | 6.4 | 14.8 | 17.6 |
| Service workers | 5.4 | 7.8 | 17.1 | 22.8 |
| Farmworkers | 5.6 | 33.1 | 5.6 | 17.2 |

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

TABLE 9. YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME EMPLOYED MEN WHO EARNED BELOW $3,000, BY COLOR, FOR SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1966

[Numbers in thousands]

| Industry | Number of white low earners | As a percent of all whites employed | Number of nonwhite low earners | As a percent of all nonwhites employed |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Construction | 111 | 5 | 53 | 27 |
| Manufacturing | 348 | 3 | 160 | 16 |
| Trade | 300 | 7 | 160 | 36 |
| Service industries | 322 | 7 | 147 | 25 |

Only about 12 percent of the women who work continuously throughout the year are family heads. It is sometimes argued, therefore, that low earnings may not produce as much hardship for women workers and their families as they do for men. However, the earnings of women who are secondary wage earners are often essential to keep their families out of poverty. And for women who are family heads, their generally limited earnings may be a source of acute deprivation.

Fortunately, women have shared somewhat in the recent improvements in earnings. The number of women year-round, full-time workers earning less than $3,000 declined very little between 1961 and 1966 (from 3.7 to 3.6 million). But during the same period, the total number of women working full time all year rose by 3.7 million; so even a small decrease in the low-earner group represented a significant relative gain. The incidence of low earnings among women was reduced in all occupations except private household work, where the low-earner ratio rose slightly.

The continued large numbers of women in low-paid service occupations are a major factor contributing to the high proportion of women workers in the low-earnings category. However, increases in substandard wage rates will be mandatory over the next several years for some service workers outside private households, as well as many in trade and certain other fields, under the 1966 amendments to the Fair Labor Standards Act (as discussed earlier). The prohibition of wage and other discrimination in employment under the Equal Opportunity Act also applies to women and should help progressively to open opportunities for them in better paying jobs.

## INFORMATIONAL NEEDS

1. As suggested in the discussion of minimum wage standards, more information is needed on the socioeconomic characteristics of low-wage workers—both those outside the scope of the Fair Labor Standards Act and those covered by the law but paid no more than the minimum wage. Information on the age, sex, color, marital status, and number of dependents of low-wage workers, as well as their occupations and training, is essential to policy planning. Explorations are in process of the various possible ways of obtaining information for these workers.

2. The lack of satisfactory earnings information for part-year and part-time workers has significantly limited the foregoing discussion of the adequacy of earnings. Some suggestions for meeting this need by expanded tabulations of existing statistics are included in the following section on Strengthening the Sub-Employment Data. In addition, regular collection of weekly earnings data is needed in connection with the Current Population Survey, to provide a direct measure of earnings levels for all workers which can be related to their personal and economic characteristics.

3. Although fringe benefits are known to be an important earnings supplement for many workers, no comprehensive data are available as to their nature or extent or the characteristics and money earnings of the workers who do and do not receive them. The feasibility of obtaining information on these benefits from household surveys and other sources, such as the present system of payroll reports from employers, should be explored.

## The Concept of Sub-Employment

An initial effort to estimate the total impact of joblessness and inadequate earnings on workers in urban slums, through a combined sub-employment rate, was reported on in last year's *Manpower Report.* In 10 slum areas surveyed by the Department of Labor in October 1966, the average rate of sub-employment was found to be about one-third. In other words, 1 out of every 3 slum residents who were already workers, or should and could become workers with suitable help, was either jobless or earning only substandard wages.

This rough estimate represented a first exploratory approach to overall measurement of the problems of unemployment and hardship in some of the worst and poorest city slums. The new series of urban employment surveys, to be launched by the Department in 1968, will carry forward this effort to study sub-employment in slum areas where the problem is most extreme. What is reported on here is an initial step toward development of a sub-employment measure on a national basis.

The concept of sub-employment reflects the judgment that workers with low earnings may have problems of as much concern from the viewpoint of manpower policy as those of many workers with substantial unemployment. The purpose of analyzing low earnings in conjunction with unemployment is not to equate the two, since they represent very different problems that will yield to very different solutions. Rather, the concept of sub-employment is designed to provide a summary measure of the total problem of unemployment and low earnings, its compounded impact on the same disadvantaged groups, and its effects in preventing several million workers and their families from sharing in the Nation's economic prosperity.[16]

In working toward a national sub-employment indicator, unemployment has been measured in terms of the worker's experience during an entire calendar year, and the earnings data utilized are annual earnings for year-round, full-time employment (as discussed in the preceding sections on Unemployment and Adequacy of Workers' Earnings). Thus, the indicator measures sub-employment on an annual basis—a considerably different measure from the sub-employment rate in a specific week arrived at last year for workers in urban slums.[17]

The new sub-employment measure includes two clearly defined and distinct groups—workers unemployed 15 or more weeks during the year and those who made less than $3,000 for year-round, full-time work (taken as a proportion of the entire labor force with a week or more of work experience during the year).

This measure is a very conservative one, focused on the most serious problems of unemployment and low earnings. The use of annual income data for full-time, year-round workers omits many whose weekly or hourly rates are inadequate. Similarly, the exclusion of persons who had fewer than 15 weeks of unemployment understates that problem. Many workers with low earnings and no savings can be severely affected by any unemployment, and those who have almost 15 weeks of unemployment are certain to be seriously affected. The present measure of sub-employment also excludes persons who work part time involuntarily in many weeks of the year as well as those who have looked for jobs for as long as 15 weeks and then become discouraged and stop looking. Furthermore, no allowance is made for the incomplete coverage of the population (the so-called census undercount) which is probably largest among the most disadvantaged groups.

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[16] It should be pointed out that the tools for creating a crude concept of sub-employment have been available for several years; data on annual earnings of year-round workers, and on the employment and unemployment experience of workers on a calendar year basis, have been available since 1956 for men and since 1960 for women. This is the first time, however, that the two sets of data have been brought together in a single, comprehensive measure.

[17] The unemployment component of the 1967 sub-employment rate for slum areas represented the number of persons unemployed in a particular week of the year regardless of their duration of unemployment. The measure described here includes all persons—and only those—who were unemployed 15 or more weeks during the year. Similarly, the earnings component of the 1967 index was based on weekly earnings below a specified minimum, whereas the present measure is an annual one.

In addition, the 1967 index included the following components:

1. Persons working only part time though they wanted full-time work;
2. Half the number of "nonparticipants" among men aged 20 to 64 (on the assumption that the other half are not potential workers, chiefly because of physical or mental disabilities or severe personal problems); and
3. An estimate of the male "undercount" group (based on the assumption that the number of men in the area should bear the same relation to the number of women that exists in the population generally; also that half of the unfound men are in the four groups of sub-employed people just listed. See *1967 Manpower Report,* pp. 74–75.

Many of the persons in these categories are also included this year, though not specifically identified. For example, some reported last year as involuntary part-time workers or as persons outside the work force who wanted to work may have had 15 or more weeks of unemployment during 1967.

The preceding sections on Joblessness and Underemployment and the Adequacy of Workers' Earnings discuss the available evidence as to the importance of these omitted groups. Although limitations of the data did not permit their inclusion in the sub-employment measure at this time, the new index provides a base on which a still more comprehensive measure can be built when the needed figures become available.

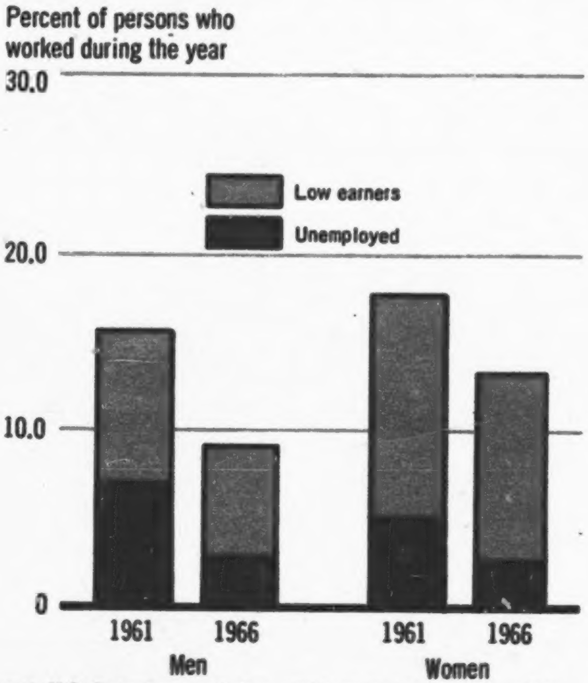
## RATES OF SUB-EMPLOYMENT

Sub-employment has declined sharply since 1961. The sub-employment rate, as presently measured, fell from 17 percent in 1961 to 10 percent in 1966.

Low earners were by far the larger of the two groups included in the index—6.7 million, as compared with 2.4 million with 15 or more weeks of unemployment in 1966. And although the number of low earners declined substantially between 1961 and 1966 (by 16 percent), the improvement was not nearly as sharp as in the number with extensive unemployment (which decreased by more than 50 percent). Plainly, the problem of low earnings has been less responsive to the economic upturn than extended unemployment and, so far, has been less affected by manpower and antipoverty programs.

CHART 4

**Sub-employment rates declined sharply for both men and women between 1961 and 1966.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Data on low earnings from U.S. Department of Commerce.

Slightly over half of the sub-employed were men despite the fact that their rate was considerably lower than that for women (9 percent, compared with 13 percent). Among both men and women, low earnings was a much more common problem than unemployment of 15 or more weeks; the disparity was greater for women. (See chart 4.)

The economic disadvantage suffered by nonwhite men is sharply portrayed by the sub-employment data. Their sub-employment rate was 22 percent, compared with 8 percent for white men. Coupled with an unemployment rate almost three times as high as for white men was an equally disproportionate low-earnings rate. (See chart 5.)

That these figures are only a rough, broad-gage indication of the proportion of workers with a substandard employment-earnings situation warrants additional emphasis. As more data become available and concepts are further refined, both modification and supplementation of this measure should be possible—including measurement of the degree of economic hardship suffered by workers unemployed for different lengths of time.

## STRENGTHENING THE DATA ON SUB-EMPLOYMENT

In the further development of summary indicators of unemployment and inadequate earnings, there should be continued emphasis on experimentation, innovation, and flexibility. Strengthening of data is needed in several major respects.

Measures of unemployment and inadequate earnings for residents of urban slums and other poverty areas are the first requirement. As noted earlier, the Department of Labor is planning a new series of surveys which will supply many of the needed data for urban slums.

Second, the development of a satisfactory measure of sub-employment has been much hampered by the absence of interrelated information on the earnings as well as the income of people with different amounts of unemployment, and of those employed only part time or part year. Much valuable information on these points could be obtained by a major expansion of tabulations relating data already collected through the work-experience and income surveys.

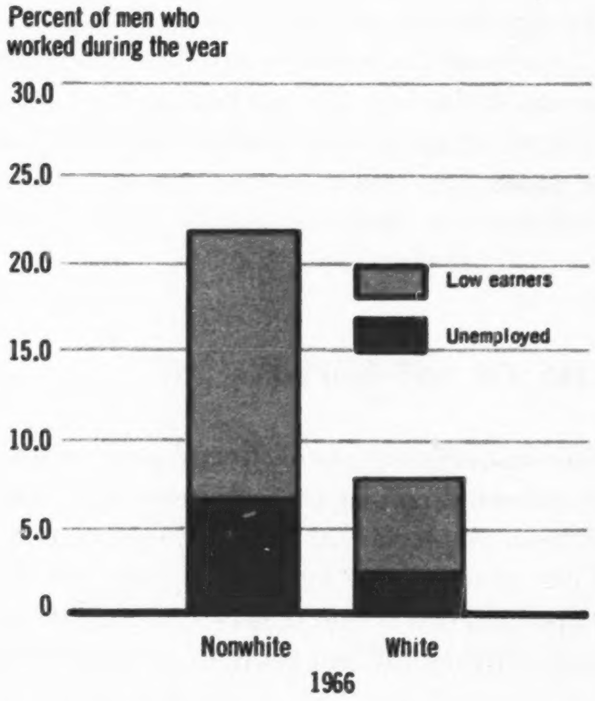
Additional specific needs for improved information include the following:

—Information should be tabulated on reasons for unemployment, for part-year and part-time work, and for nonparticipation in the work force. Such information would be of particular value in interpreting the proposed new tabulations relating work experience and income.

—An expanded tabulation program focusing on the work experience of each family member and the relation of such work experience to his earnings, and to family income, would yield many important insights.

CHART 5

**Sub-employment rate is nearly three times as high for nonwhite as for white men.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Data on low earnings from U.S. Department of Commerce.

# Income Maintenance for Workers

Income protection in the event of unemployment or disabling accident or injury is another area of urgent concern to the well-being of workers and their dependents. And so is assurance of an adequate income after retirement.[18]

The magnitude of the unemployment risk is indicated by figures already cited: In 1966, more than 11 million workers had at least one period of joblessness (over 15 million in the less prosperous years of 1961 and 1962). About 1 million workers were unemployed for 27 or more weeks.

More than 2 million suffered work injuries, and 14,500 died from these injuries. In addition, on an average day, an estimated 1¾ to 2 million workers are prevented from working as a result of nonoccupational disabling injuries or illnesses, which are far more frequent than work-connected disabilities.

Risks of such magnitude demand protective measures of commensurate scope and depth. This has been recognized since the inception of our social security system more than 30 years ago. Unemployment insurance and retirement benefits have been major elements in this system from the beginning. Workers disabled by work-connected accident or injury have for even longer—over 50 years—looked chiefly to the State workmen's compensation insurance programs for economic protection.

Though all these systems have limitations and loopholes, they have been the means of preventing or greatly reducing deprivation for many millions of Americans. They have also been supplemented by a variety of public and private programs for particular groups of workers. Moreover, a start has been made in providing income maintenance for workers disabled by illness or injury not related to their jobs.

To describe and assess the nature, accomplishments, and limitations of this highly complicated network of programs would be far beyond the scope and purpose of this section. All that is attempted here is to review briefly the available information—some of it comprehensive, some fragmentary—on how many of the country's workers receive income protection from the major programs and how adequate this protection is.

## UNEMPLOYMENT

The major source of income maintenance protection in case of unemployment is the State-Federal unemployment insurance (UI) system, designed to provide temporary assistance against part of the wage loss due to involuntary unemployment. A separate Federal wage-insurance program affords protection to unemployed railroad workers; still other Federal programs offer protection to civilian employees of the Government and to ex-servicemen. Supplementing these Government programs, for relatively small groups of workers, are private measures—almost exclusively the result of collective bargaining.

### Public Unemployment Insurance

**Coverage.** Nationally, more than three-fourths of all jobs in wage and salary employment are covered by public unemployment insurance systems, including the programs for railroad workers, Federal civilian employees, and ex-servicemen, as well as the State-Federal UI system.

Effective as these programs are ($82.2 million in benefits were paid to almost 5 million unemployed workers in 1967), their coverage has major limitations. Nearly one-fourth of the jobs held by wage and salary workers are excluded. These noncovered jobs are chiefly in five major categories: (1) State and local government, (2) domestic service, (3) nonprofit organizations, (4) farms and the processing of agricultural products, and (5) very small firms. (See chart 6.)

Since the State UI laws differ somewhat in their coverage provisions, the proportion of wage and salary workers with UI protection is higher in some States than others, partly because of the industrial composition of the State's economy. It is under 70 percent in four largely agricultural States (North Dakota, South Dakota, Iowa, and Nebraska) and 100 percent in Hawaii only. (See chart 7.)

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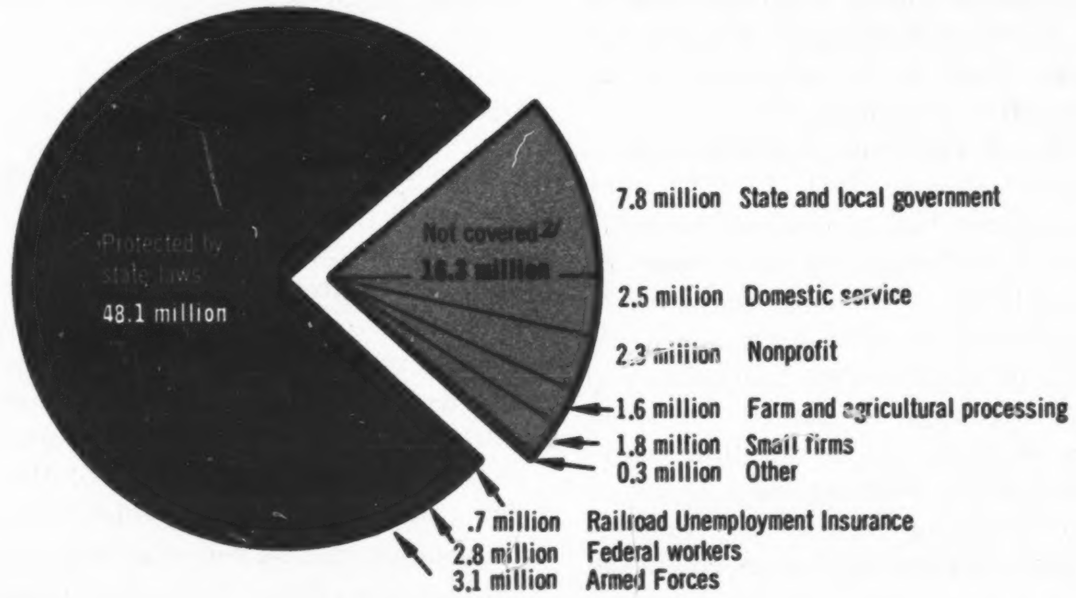
[18] This discussion is limited to income maintenance programs designed to reduce income loss resulting from interruption of work, and therefore does not include public assistance, manpower training, or poverty programs.

CHART 6

**One out of every four wage and salary workers is not covered by unemployment insurance.**[1]



[1] 1966 estimates.

[2] Excludes clergymen and members of religious orders, student nurses, interns, and students employed in schools where enrolled.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

In addition, the public unemployment insurance programs are not designed and do not attempt to protect the self-employed, unpaid family workers, young workers searching for their first job, or reentrants into the labor force. Yet in 1967 almost two-fifths of the unemployed were in these categories—a very sizable and vulnerable group of workers.

Even for wage and salary workers in covered employment, protection is not guaranteed. No worker qualifies automatically for UI benefits. The unemployment insurance program, like all other social insurance or income maintenance programs, requires some minimum earnings or length of service, or both, before a worker is eligible for benefits. In 1967, 12 percent of the jobless workers who applied for benefits under the UI system had insufficient work experience to qualify for them. And if the unemployed workers who did not apply for benefits because they knew they would not qualify could be counted also, the proportion excluded because of insufficient work experience would be much higher.

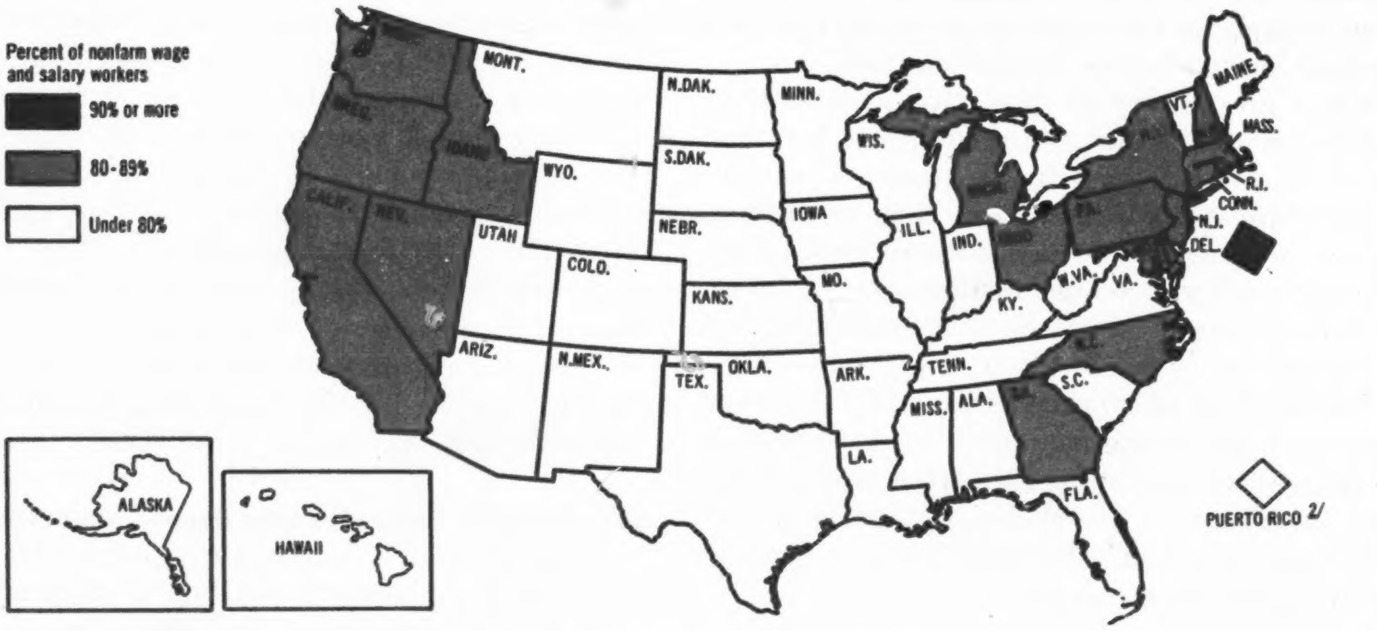
***Adequacy of Benefit Payments.*** The generally accepted aim of unemployment insurance is to restore at least half of the gross weekly wages of most workers who would qualify for UI benefits.

In general, State laws provide for weekly benefits equal to half the worker's previous weekly wage, up to a specified maximum benefit amount. When the laws were first enacted, the maximums set were high enough to achieve the 50-percent benefit objective for most workers. But since then, benefits have failed to keep pace with rising wages. In 1967 the national average weekly benefit ($41.25) represented only 36 percent of the average weekly wage in covered employment, compared with 42 percent in 1939. In dollar terms, the gap between wages and benefits has widened greatly year after year. (See chart 8.)

The growing inadequacy of average weekly benefits, relative to average wages, is explained by the legally established ceilings on weekly benefits. These maximum benefit amounts, in many cases fixed in dollar terms, have lagged further and further behind rising wages. Currently, the maximum basic weekly benefit represents half or more of the average weekly wage in covered employment in

CHART 7

Proportion of workers covered by unemployment insurance varies greatly among States. 1/


Percent of nonfarm wage and salary workers
90% or more
80-89%
Under 80%
MONT.
OREG.
IDAHO
WYO.
CALIF.
NEV.
UTAH
COLO.
ARIZ.
N.MEX.
N.DAK.
S.DAK.
NEBR.
KANS.
OKLA.
TEX.
MINN.
IOWA
MO.
ARK.
LA.
WIS.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
S.C.
N.C.
VA.
W.VA.
PA.
N.Y.
VT.
MAINE
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
N.J.
DEL.
PUERTO RICO 2/
ALASKA
HAWAII

1/ Excludes employment in private households; includes all State and Federal programs, percentages based on March 1967 employment adjusted for coverage increases.

2/ Included in national average.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

only 19 States. In 1939, all but two States were in the 50-percent or more category.

Workers in low-paid jobs, who qualify for a weekly benefit below the maximum, can usually get a benefit equal to half their weekly wages. But those at higher wage levels are prevented by the benefit ceiling from receiving a 50-percent wage-loss replacement. Thus, the proportion of UI claimants at the benefit maximum is another significant measure of benefit adequacy.

In 1967, 47 percent of all eligible claimants were concentrated at the maximum weekly benefit amount, compared to an estimated 26 percent in 1939.[19] This change can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, it reflects the rising occupational and wage levels of American workers. The proportion of workers who are in low-skill and low-paying jobs—the kind of jobs in which periods of unemployment occur most frequently—has declined significantly. However, it is plain that, for a large and growing proportion of workers covered by the UI program, unemployment can mean more than a 50-percent income drop (from their previous weekly wage level).

***Duration of Benefit Payments.*** Unemployment insurance must provide income maintenance protection of sufficient duration to tide workers over temporary periods of unemployment between jobs if it is to meet its intended objectives. Most States pay benefits up to a maximum of 26 weeks (more in a few States) in a 1-year period. In nearly all States, however, the maximum duration of benefits for which a worker may qualify varies with the length of his past employment, so that some claimants are entitled to less than even 10 weeks of benefits.[20]

The adequacy of benefit duration can be measured by the proportion of claimants who remain unemployed so long that they exhaust their benefit rights. In periods when the general level of unemployment is low, about one-fifth to one-fourth of all workers who receive benefits exhaust their entitlement, whereas in recession periods this proportion may rise to one-third. (See chart 9.) But even in high employment periods, significant proportions of workers hit by locational, technological, or other changes in the structure of employment use up their benefits before finding new jobs.

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[19] In general, weekly benefit limits under the railroad unemployment insurance system are more generous than those in most State programs. Nevertheless, in recent years almost all railroad beneficiaries qualified for the maximum benefits.

[20] The railroad unemployment insurance system has a uniform duration of 26 weeks and has a special provision for extended benefits to workers with long service in the railroad industry who exhaust their normal benefits.

For a great many of those who exhaust their benefit rights, the duration is limited to less than 26 weeks. In 1966, for example, almost 55 percent of the claimants who exhausted their benefits received compensation for less than 26 weeks. Most of these workers have no further income protection, regardless of how long it takes them to find new jobs or to be recalled to their previous ones.

For millions of workers, then, the UI system does not meet its original objectives. It often fails to restore even as much as half of the weekly earnings to those who lose their jobs, and even that inadequate payment often stops before the workers are again earning wages.

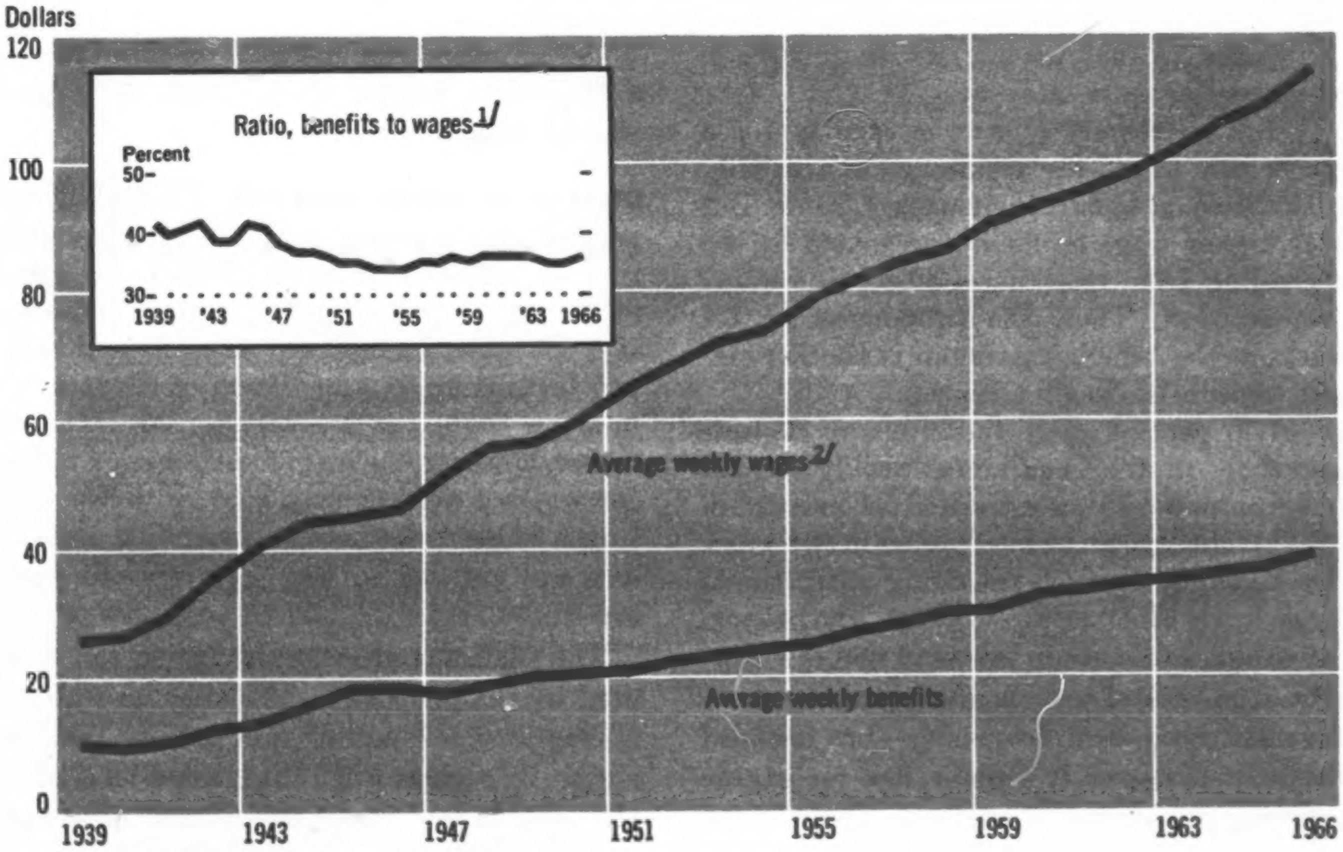
### Private Unemployment Benefit Programs

Additional income protection for the unemployed is available to relatively small groups of workers under private programs. One type of program aims at supplementation of UI benefits. Others are designed to maintain or extend wage payments, or their equivalent, during slack periods and following a worker's separation, regardless of substitute income in the form of unemployment insurance benefits. In general, workers who are protected by private programs are likely to be employed in jobs also covered by the public UI system. So the effect of these programs is to provide more adequate income maintenance for some workers eligible for UI, rather than to help some of the millions without UI protection.

***Supplemental Unemployment Benefit Plans.*** Income security protection became an important issue in collective bargaining in the 1950's, when a con-

CHART 8

**Average weekly wages have outrun average weekly unemployment insurance benefits.**



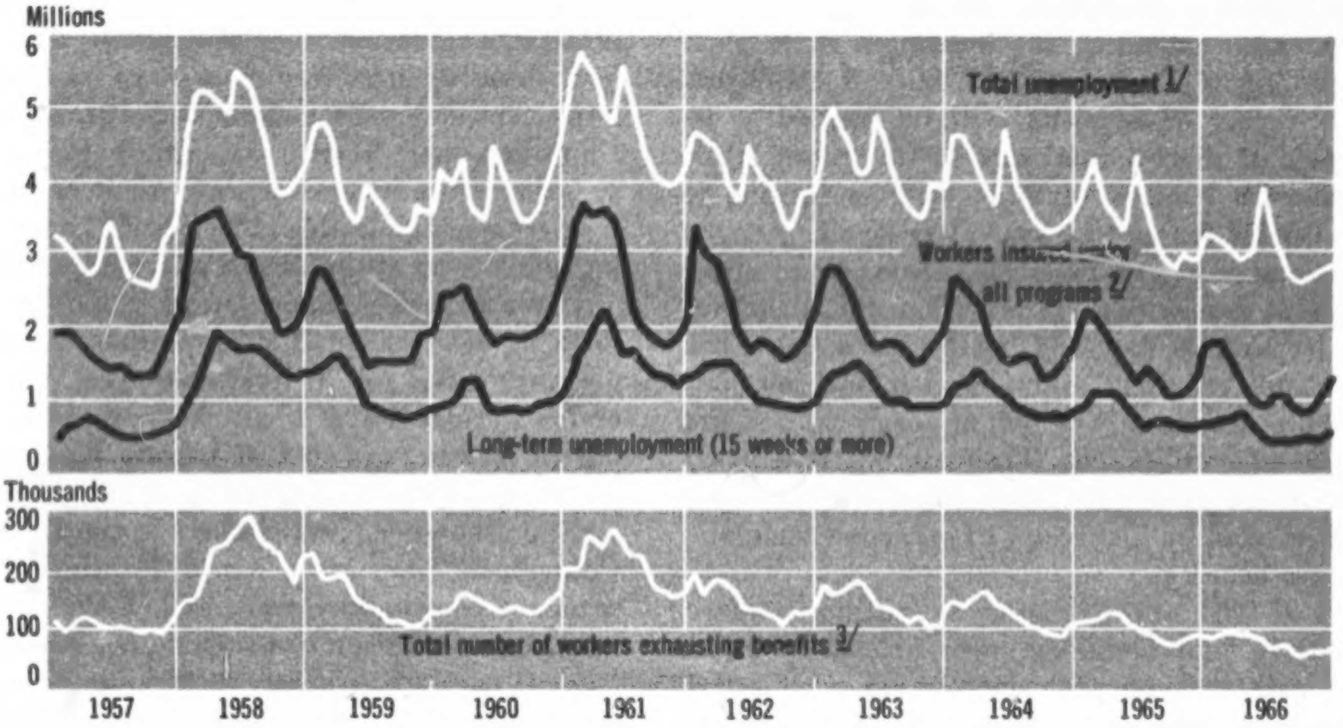
1/ Benefits related to wages in the preceding calendar year.

2/ In covered employment.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

CHART 9

**Many more workers exhaust their unemployment insurance benefits when unemployment rises.**



1/ Includes Alaska and Hawaii beginning in January 1960.
2/ Includes state, veterans', ex-servicemen's, Federal civilian employees', and railroad programs.
3/ Excludes exhaustions under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance program; includes exhaustions under Puerto Rico Unemployment Insurance program after Dec. 31, 1960.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

certed drive by several unions led to the establishment of supplemental unemployment benefit plans (SUB). Such plans are designed to supplement benefits paid under the public unemployment compensation programs. Concurrency and integration of SUB and State UI benefits are usual.

Approximately 700 SUB plans throughout the Nation cover about 2.5 million workers (1 out of 20 of those covered by public programs)—half of them in the automobile and steel industries.[21] The coverage of SUB plans, in terms of the numbers of workers protected, has been at a standstill in recent years. The scope of many such plans, however, has been broadened to provide for benefits to partially unemployed workers, and severance pay and moving allowances to terminated workers.

Benefits to the individual worker, including UI benefits, are designed to replace 60 to 70 percent of earnings, and practically all plans provide weekly allowances for dependents in addition to the regular weekly benefit amount. This means that these workers are, of course, much better off than the vast majority of workers who have to depend solely on the public UI system.

***Employment and Wage Guarantees and Related Benefits.*** The establishment of employment or wage guarantees has been one of the goals sought by organized labor as a solution to the problem of income maintenance for workers. The basic difference between such guarantees and SUB plans is that the former assure workers who start or are available for work a minimum of employment or payment of straight time weekly wages for a stated number of weeks, while SUB plans usually supplement UI benefits to laid-off workers.

Employment and wage guarantees are provided for in only a few collective bargaining agreements. Only about 600,000 workers were covered by such guarantees in 1963, the latest date for which information is available, and for the most part the guarantee was for a week only, although in a few cases it extended to 1 year. However, the 1967 agreements in the automobile industry took a long step toward a guaranteed annual wage, through a provision extending the industry's SUB plan. Beginning in December 1968, laid-off employees with 1 year of seniority will be entitled to 95 percent of their normal pay for 31 weeks, while those with 7 years' seniority will be entitled to this benefit for up to a year after layoff.

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[21] Dorothy R. Kittner, "Supplementary Unemployment Benefit Plans," *Unemployment Insurance Review*, August 1967, pp. 1–2.

Severance pay arrangements are known by many different names (e.g., termination pay, dismissal pay, separation pay, and layoff allowance). Such payments represent compensation for job loss. Benefits are usually based on prior wages and length of employment. They are not contingent upon the worker remaining unemployed, nor are they affected by his receipt of other income maintenance benefits.

As of 1963, approximately 2.3 million workers, chiefly in manufacturing, were covered by severance pay or layoff provisions in major collective bargaining contracts (those covering 100,000 or more workers). All these workers are presumably covered also by unemployment insurance. However, in some 20 States UI benefits are denied or reduced for recipients of severance pay. As yet, severance pay has not been an important source of income to workers, nor an important cost item to employers.

Thus, a worker who loses his job through no fault of his own, and who cannot locate another job quickly, is likely to find himself, sooner or later, thrown on his own resources. Even minimal help is not forthcoming if he is in a job not covered by UI or if he is only casually and intermittently employed in a covered job.

## SICKNESS AND DISABILITY COMPENSATION

### Work-Connected Disabilities

How great is the risk of disabling injury on the job? This question can be answered in terms of what lies ahead for the oncoming generation of workers. Unless substantial progress is made in reducing work injuries, 1 out of every 100 young people currently entering the work force at age 20 will die as the result of a work injury. Six more will suffer a permanent impairment, and 68 will experience one or more disabling injuries. Only 25 out of the 100 can expect to complete their working lives without a disabling work injury.

The disabled worker must look chiefly to State workmen's compensation programs for economic protection against short-term disability. The long-term disabled must rely most often on disability retirement under the Federal Old-Age, Survivors, Disability, and Health Insurance (OASDHI) program, since most State laws limit benefits for the permanently disabled to a specific period, leaving the worker still disabled and without income.

The workmen's compensation system is a network of independent State programs. A separate program exists for Federal employees. The Federal Government also administers programs relating to certain segments of private industry employment—notably, maritime and harbor workers and longshoremen, and workers in the District of Columbia.[22] The various laws differ widely in coverage, in benefit provisions, and in the insurance mechanism relied on to provide cash benefits and medical care for injured workers, and monetary payments to survivors of those killed on the job.

**Coverage.** An estimated 53 to 54 million workers—more than 80 percent of all civilian wage and salary workers in the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and the Federal Government—are covered by the workmen's compensation system as a whole[23] (including both State and Federal programs). The benefits received are a major source of support for the families of the approximately 14,500 persons killed at work each year, and for a large proportion of the 2.2 million workers who are injured on the job. But 1 out of every 5 wage and salary workers (some 12 million) and practically all those who are self-employed are without any public income protection in case of work injury—an omnipresent risk for many of these unprotected workers, including those in agriculture.

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[22] The relevant Federal programs are those administered under the Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act, District of Columbia Workmen's Compensation Act, Defense Base Act, War Hazards Compensation Act, Outer Continental Shelf Lands Act, and the Nonappropriated Fund Instrumentalities Act.

Maritime workers are subject to the Merchant Marine Act (Jones Act), under which the provisions of the Federal Employers' Liability Act are made applicable to seamen. This act gives an employee an action in negligence against his employer and provides that the employer may not plead the common law defense of fellow servant or assumption of risk. It also substitutes the principle of comparative negligence for the common law principle of contributory negligence.

[23] These figures do not include railroad workers in interstate commerce and seamen in the U.S. Merchant Marine, who are covered under the Federal Employers' Liability Act.

The proportion of workers covered by workmen's compensation has remained virtually unchanged since 1953. Jobs excluded from the workmen's compensation system in many States are generally the same jobs as are excluded from unemployment insurance coverage—domestic service, agricultural and small firm employment, and employment in nonprofit organizations. No State law covers all employment; some restrict coverage, for example, to so-called "hazardous" occupations.

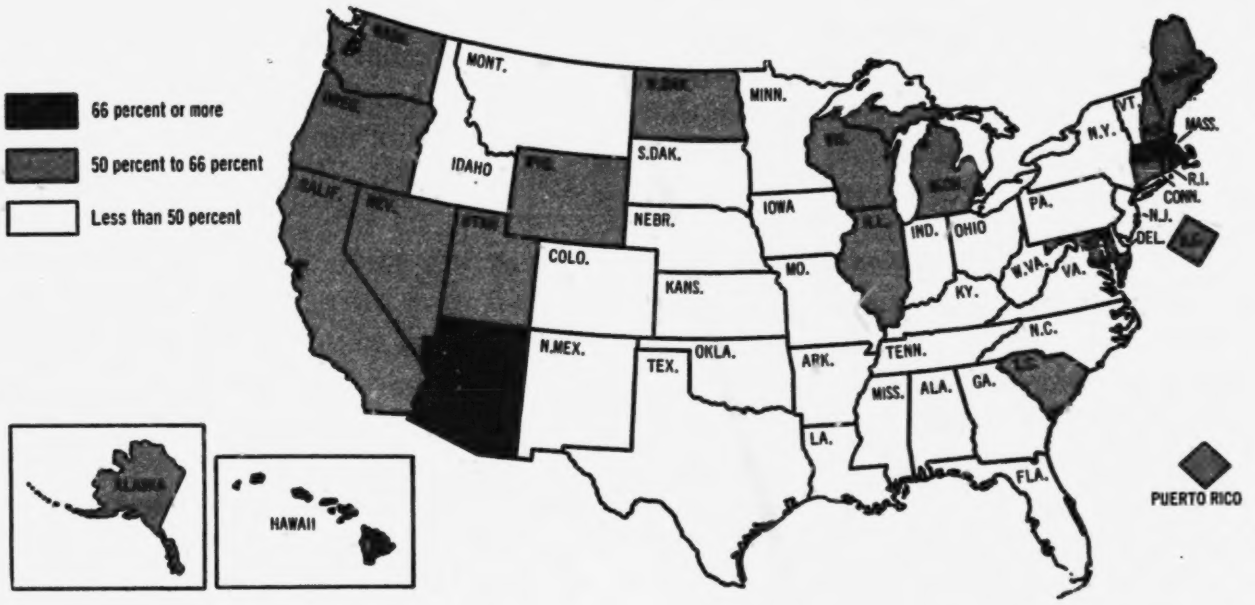
As is true of UI insurance, coverage does not assure compensation. In 23 States, employers may elect not to come under the act, in which case the worker must sue to receive compensation. Coverage of occupational diseases is still much more limited than that of accidents. Only 32 States now cover all occupational diseases, with the remaining States providing either no coverage or coverage for only certain specified diseases. Even in States where occupational illnesses are covered, benefits are usually less generous for such illnesses than for injury or disability resulting from accidents.

The possibility of latent illness and the complexities involved in determining causal relationships in many occupational disease cases are factors that must be considered in assuring adequate coverage and compensation benefits to disabled workers. For example, a study of the incidence of lung cancer among underground uranium miners (to date over 100 deaths due to lung cancer have been reported) has demonstrated that there is an association between exposure to radiation hazards and the contraction of lung cancer in the higher exposure groups.[24] While reliable estimates of the number of future lung cancer cases are not now possible, the Federal Radiation Council has concluded that a significant number of additional cases can be expected.

***Adequacy of Benefit Payments.*** Most workmen's compensation laws provide for replacement of from three-fifths to two-thirds of a disabled worker's lost wages. (Under the Federal Employees' Compensation Act, the weekly benefit for a worker with dependents is 75 percent; for those without

CHART 10

**Ratio of maximum weekly benefits for temporary total disability to average weekly wages varied widely among States in 1966.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

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[24] Of the principal uranium States—New Mexico, Wyoming, Colorado, and Utah—only one, Colorado, had recognized lung cancer as an occupational disease among uranium miners prior to 1967, when Utah also acted to control uranium hazards.

dependents, 66⅔ percent.) However, because of ceilings on the amount and duration of benefits and the waiting periods required before benefits start, the proportion of wage loss actually compensated is much less. Nationally, maximum weekly benefits averaged only 48 percent of average weekly wages[25] in 1966 and varied among the States. (See chart 10.) The maximums ranged from $35 in Louisiana and Mississippi to $150 in Arizona, with a national average of $55.

There has been a persistent decline in the adequacy of the income protection offered under workmen's compensation. Measured in 1965–66 dollars, maximum benefits in 15 States were lower in 1966 than they were in 1940, with percentage declines ranging from 27.7 in Louisiana to 85.9 in Hawaii. In all but five States the 1966 maximum weekly benefit amount was less than 60 percent of the statewide average weekly wage.

In more practical terms, a disabled worker who has a family of four to support and who receives the maximum weekly benefit amount under workmen's compensation would, in 35 States, fall considerably short of the income required to keep his family out of poverty (as measured by the Social Security Administration's definitions).

For work injuries that result in death (about 14,500) or permanent disability (about 90,000) benefits are even less adequate.[26] Under workmen's compensation laws in many States, benefits for the permanently disabled—or for survivors of workers killed in work-connected accidents—are limited to a specific period, or a specific dollar amount. After these benefits expire, permanently disabled workers or the survivors of workers killed on the job are left without income unless they are eligible for benefits under OASDHI or private plans.

***Proposed Legislation on Occupational Safety and Health.*** As the President emphasized in his message on Manpower to the Congress in January 1968: "The gap in worker protection is wide and glaring—and it must be closed by a strong and forceful new law." Accordingly, the President submitted to the Congress the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1968. As he said:

> **Here, in broad outline, is what this measure will do.**
>
> **For more than 50 million workers involved in interstate commerce it will:**
>
> **—Strengthen the authority and resources of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to conduct an extensive program of research. This will provide the needed information on which new standards can be developed.**
>
> **—Empower the Secretary of Labor to set and enforce those standards.**
>
> **—Impose strong sanctions, civil and criminal, on those who endanger the health and safety of the American working man.**
>
> **For American workers in intra-state commerce, it will provide, for the first time, Federal help to the States to start and strengthen their own health and safety programs.**

## Nonoccupational Disabilities

Although short-term nonoccupational disability is far more prevalent than work-connected disability, protection against income loss for this risk is much less widespread. In considering protection against nonoccupational disability loss, one must make a distinction between short-term disabilities and the first 6 months of long-term disabilities, on the one hand, and the remainder of long-term disabilities, on the other. Some workers with short-term disabilities have protection under Federal or State law; others are protected under private insurance and sick leave plans. Workers with long-term nonoccupational disabilities must rely mainly, after the first 6 months, on the OASDHI system as their only source of income maintenance (other than public assistance).

About three-fifths of all wage and salary workers in private industry have some protection against loss of earnings because of short-term nonoccupational disability, but for many this protection is extremely limited. And the remaining millions of workers are thrown wholly on their own resources when disability occurs.

Four States (California, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island) have compulsory, public temporary disability insurance programs that cover most of their private wage and salary workers. Generally excluded are the same groups of workers that are outside the public UI program—farm and domestic workers, those in small firms, and employees of government and nonprofit organizations. Workers in the railroad industry are protected under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Program.

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[25] Average weekly wage as reported under the State unemployment insurance programs.

[26] Alfred M. Skolnik, "Twenty-Five Years of Workmen's Compensation Statistics," *Social Security Bulletin,* October 1966, pp. 3–26.

Outside of these compulsory programs, only about half of all private wage and salary workers can count on any replacement of income loss caused by nonoccupational disability. Of the 21 million who did have some other form of short-term disability protection in 1966, some 17 million were covered primarily by commercial group insurance purchased by employers. Others were protected by union and joint union-management programs, employers' self-insured plans, and mutual aid plans. Insurance plans ordinarily provide wage-loss replacement geared to some percentage of the worker's recent wages, with the maximum duration of benefits usually limited to between 13 and 26 weeks.

Sick leave plans usually provide for continuation of wages for a specified period, sometimes varying with length of service. Sick leave represented 55 percent of all sickness benefits in 1966, and over two-thirds of that went to government workers.

It is not now possible to determine either the amount of income loss or the adequacy of income loss protection for workers with long-term disabilities. At the end of 1967, almost 1.2 million disabled workers under age 65 were drawing benefits under the OASDHI system for either occupational or nonoccupational disability. Many other disabled workers are ineligible for benefits either because their disability does not meet the strict statutory definitions of disability or because they cannot meet the work experience requirements.

## RETIREMENT PROTECTION

The major public provision for maintenance of income for retired workers, as well as for protection to families deprived of their main source of income because of death of the breadwinner, is the OASDHI program.

The OASDHI program today approaches universal coverage of retired workers. Excluded are four major categories: (1) Workers covered under Federal civilian employee retirement systems, (2) household workers and farmworkers whose earnings or employment fail to meet certain minimum requirements, (3) railroad workers covered under the Railroad Retirement Act, and (4) persons with extremely low net earnings from self-employment.

At the end of 1967, about 12 million retired workers aged 62 and over were drawing benefits under OASDHI. Their average monthly benefits were about $85. At one extreme, for men who waited until age 65 to retire, benefits averaged nearly $100. At the other extreme, women whose benefits were reduced for early retirement received an average just above $65. Benefits are based on the worker's average monthly earnings over a period of years, and additional benefits are provided for a wife and dependent child. At the benefit levels in effect in 1966 and 1967, almost all retired workers without financial resources other than OASDHI benefits were living in poverty (as defined by the Social Security Administration).

Amendments to the Social Security Act, which went into effect in February 1968, increased benefits by at least 13 percent. Minimum monthly payments increased 25 percent, from $44 to $55. The top of the range for a man retiring in 1968 is $156, compared to the previous $138. The average monthly benefit for a man and wife now on the rolls increased from $145 to $165. However, most retired (or disabled) workers with a wife and two children, who are totally dependent on OASDHI, are still at or below the poverty level.

Fortunately, many retired workers have other resources, however limited. About 25 million employees in private nonfarm jobs—or almost half the private wage and salary labor force—are building up retirement protection supplementary to OASDHI.[27] About 3 million persons were receiving private pensions in 1966, compared with some 12 million who were drawing retired workers' benefits under OASDHI. How many retirees were thus provided an adequate income, and how many were left below or near the poverty line despite both public and private retirement coverage, are questions not answerable at present.

Civilian employees of the Federal Government (about 2.7 million in 1967) have a separate retirement system which, in the case of employees with long service, provides much more adequate retirement income than OASDHI. In addition to being covered by OASDHI, career personnel in the Armed Forces are also covered by a separate program financed entirely by the Federal Government.

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[27] Walter M. Kolodrubetz, "Growth of Employee-Benefit Plans 1950–65," *Social Security Bulletin*, April 1967, pp. 10–27.

General or special retirement systems administered by State and local governments are in effect for nearly 3 out of every 4 State and local government employees. Almost all those who are full-time government employees now have retirement protection through special systems, the Federal OASDHI system, or both. Studies by the Social Security Administration show that employees covered by both a State retirement system and OASDHI generally have more overall protection than private industry employees covered by OASDHI and a private pension plan.[28]

## SOME IMPLICATIONS AND DATA NEEDS

Though assessment of existing income maintenance programs is hampered by informational gaps, it is plain that present measures to maintain income during unemployment, inability to work because of accident or illness, or old age are inadequate for most workers. The great majority of employees have some protection, varying widely in extent, but many are still without any income protection when jobless or unable to work. And the workers with the most inadequate protection or none at all are usually those most in need of help—the unskilled, the low paid, and those with long and repeated spells of unemployment.

Despite improvements in unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation programs with regard to duration of benefits, reduction of waiting period requirements, and extension of coverage and types of protection, the programs have not kept abreast of changing economic conditions in one very important respect—the ratio of maximum benefits to average weekly wages and to the cost of living. In both programs, statutory changes in benefit levels have lagged behind rising wages and living costs, so that in this regard the programs are even less adequate than they were at their inception. Today, a worker and his family, dependent solely on either program, would in a majority of cases drop below a poverty subsistence level, even if he received the maximum payment allowable under State laws.

To overcome these grave deficiencies will require major strengthening of the country's income maintenance programs. Improved data on the adequacy of private as well as public benefit payments and their relation to the well-being of workers are a lesser need, but they would be of great assistance as a guide in the essential expansion and improvement of programs.

While information on the coverage of the UI program and on benefit payments under it appears sufficient, the basic concept that UI will replace 50 percent of lost wages calls for scrutiny. How adequately does replacement of only half of lost earnings meet the needs of unemployed workers and their families? How do these workers survive on half their earnings? Do they have savings? Do they go on welfare? Answers to such questions are not available, but are essential if the program is to be assessed realistically.

Information on private benefit plans is extremely limited. Such plans are increasing at a very rapid rate, and their importance in the entire system of income maintenance for private wage and salary workers calls for extended study. The available information does not permit determination of the extent to which such plans supplement UI payments or take the place of UI for workers not covered by the public UI system. Nor is it possible to determine the relationship between private benefit plans and OASDHI payments to long-term disabled and retired workers. Such studies as are available of private benefit plans deal largely with the provisions of major collective bargaining contracts and give little indication of actual coverage or performance under these contracts.

Because of the need to develop a greater overall public awareness and understanding of workmen's compensation—its strengths and inequities and its relationships to other types of social insurance—a comprehensive review of the program should be undertaken. A national center for the collection and distribution of comparative workmen's compensation statistics could assemble much needed data, including for each State such items as the number of workers covered, the number and amount of benefit payments by type of disability, and the promptness of payments. Information on what happens to the families of workers who are killed or permanently disabled by work-connected injury or illness would also help in judging the adequacy of the program.

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[28] Joseph Krislov, *State and Local Government Retirement Systems in 1965* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Office of Research and Statistics, 1966), Research Report No. 15, p. 82.

# The Quality of Employment

Traditionally, manpower problems have been defined and measured mainly in the economic terms of employment, unemployment, and income. The gradual refinement of these economic measures has sharpened the objectives of policy and program planning. Still largely absent in the evaluation of manpower problems, however, is an adequate assessment of the many other dimensions of work and employment that affect worker well-being.

This broad, more qualitative orientation requires attention not only to how well the economic system absorbs individuals into employment and meets their financial needs, but also to the adequacy with which it satisfies quite different kinds of needs—physical, psychological, and social. These dimensions of employment are not easily defined or measured, but they are essential to a full understanding of the conditions of work and how satisfactory these are to workers.

Although no precise definition of the quality of employment will be attempted at this early stage, some essential features of the concept may be noted.

1. It is concerned primarily with the extent to which employment satisfies the needs of the individual, rather than those of the employer and the economy generally. This is not to say that conflict between these different interests is inevitable; obviously there are many points of convergence. But the furtherance of worker interests and worker satisfactions stands as a legitimate social goal in its own right.

2. It requires that work and employment be viewed and evaluated in the total scheme of life, rather than in the isolation of the work environment. An individual's experiences as a worker obviously have varied and complex interrelationships with his roles as family member, social participant, and political decisionmaker. And the available data suggest that, while generally positive, the impact of employment experience on nonwork life can, under some circumstances, have pronounced negative effects. Thus, the quality of employment has a major effect on the quality of American life in general.

3. It has two major dimensions which, although interdependent, require separate consideration. The first relates to the deleterious effects of work experience. The ways in which various forms and conditions of work adversely affect the physical health of employees have long been recognized. Statistics on the incidence of occupational injuries and illnesses testify to this negative aspect of employment. But even here, the data are incomplete. Far greater attention must be given to the ways in which employment contributes to *mental*, as well as physical, ill health.[29]

The second dimension is the extent to which the quality of employment is, and can increasingly become, a truly positive and developmental experience. The goals and functions of employment should go beyond the avoidance of poverty, insecurity, and illness, and purposively and progressively advance worker well-being—in keeping with the continuously rising aspirations and expectations throughout our society.

The discussion and data that follow represent only a preliminary stage in the assessment of the quality of employment as thus outlined. In this initial effort, its evaluation is tentatively approached from two important, though highly different, points of view. First, there is a discussion of the psychological impact of work—of the quality of employment defined largely in terms of worker feelings and attitudes. And second, progress in developing labor standards protections is briefly considered. Broadly interpreted, these standards reflect society's judgments regarding aspects of employment that are so crucial or so potentially damaging to workers as to require voluntarily agreed-upon or legal protections.

## PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF WORK

No existing measure serves as a fully satisfactory index of the far-reaching psychological and social consequences of employment. The concept of job satisfaction, however, is a logical starting point in the development of such an index. In approaching the extensive body of existing data on job attitudes, one might begin by asking what kinds of summary judgments can be made about the psychological condition of American workers generally. Does the evidence suggest that gains in economic well-being have been matched by equally satisfactory advances in psychological well-being? Or do the data point to an opposite conclusion, with large numbers of people finding little meaning and satisfaction in work?

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[29] The impetus for a closer examination of the mental health effects of employment may come partly from Workmen's Compensation decisions. In what is generally regarded as the landmark case, the Supreme Court of Michigan held that a worker's emotional disability was caused by the cumulative effects of his employment and was compensable under Michigan law [*Carter v. General Motors*, 106 N.W. 2d (Mich.) 105].

Regrettably, existing data cannot yet provide answers to questions such as these for the working population as a whole. Investigations of job satisfaction have thus far been limited, with few exceptions, to fairly narrow studies of restricted samples of occupational and industry groups at single points in time, conducted by individual researchers or private organizations.[30] The Federal Government has begun only recently to extend its range of concern to the assessment of work attitudes. Consequently, present conclusions about work attitudes must be based largely on summaries of small-scale investigations.[31]

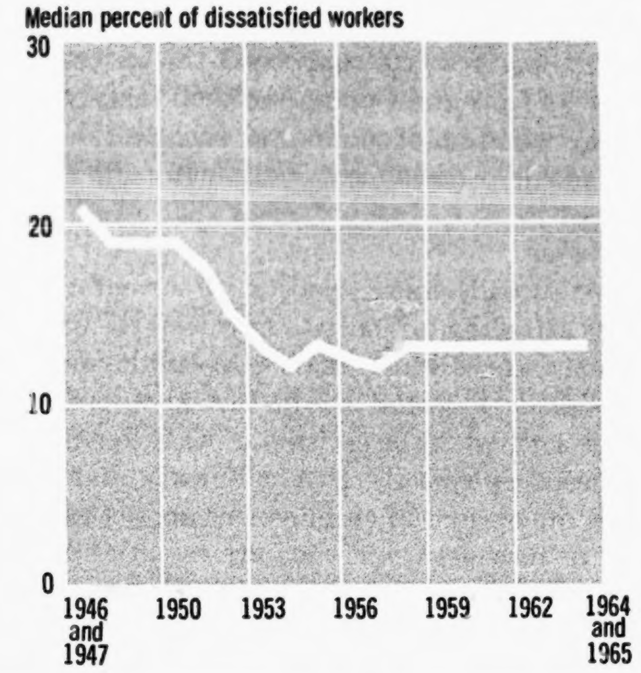
There are, of course, no absolute standards of judgment that can be used to assess the psychological condition of the labor force—or, indeed, of any group—and thus no basis for declarations that a given level of job satisfaction is good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable. What is justified, and indeed crucial, in assessing the quality of work are judgments of a comparative nature.

If satisfaction in work is generally agreed to be a positive value in our society, evidence of its improvement or deterioration over time is of obvious significance. The piecemeal character of job satisfaction research makes detection of trends in this area very difficult. So far as is known, only one effort has been made to chart the course of satisfaction and dissatisfaction over the years,[32] and unfortunately its limitations are great.

A fairly notable decrease in job dissatisfaction since 1946–47 seems to be indicated by this one study—a compilation of the findings of independent research studies. From a post-World War II high of 21 percent, the median percent dissatisfied gradually diminished to 12 percent in 1953 and has since remained at about 12 to 13 percent. (See chart 11.)

CHART 11

**Frequency of job dissatisfaction appears to have declined over the past two decades.**



Note: Each median percent represents an average compiled from studies on job dissatisfaction conducted by various researchers within a year or other time period.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1946-1965.

The serious technical limitations of these data should be borne in mind, however. What indeed seems to have been an impressive long-run change for the better in level of job satisfaction may also reflect differences in the makeup of respondent groups, in research design, and in techniques of measurement. Furthermore, a persistent sampling bias is possible, since surveys of employee attitudes are most likely to be conducted in organizations with enlightened managements and where there is no detectable evidence of serious discontent. Thus, cautious interpretation of the findings is in order.

The danger of excessively broad generalizations about levels of job satisfaction should be emphasized also. Overall judgments about the psychological state of the work force tend to obscure critical differences among various occupational and other population subgroups. As will be illustrated later in this section, in a work force as heterogeneous as that of the United States, work attitudes and job satisfaction can be as varied as the tasks performed and the conditions under which they are carried out.

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[30] Illustrative of the kind of research that promises to help fill the void is a "Study of the Impact of Changes in Machine Technology on a Cross-Section of the Labor Force" (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process); also, a "Longitudinal Study of Labor Force Behavior" (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process).

[31] See, for example, Frederick Herzberg and others, *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion* (Pittsburgh: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957); also, Victor H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964).

[32] See the annual reports on job satisfaction research in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal.*

### Occupational Differences in Job Satisfaction

The higher an individual's position in the occupational hierarchy, the more likely he is to experience satisfaction in his employment. Regarding this not-unexpected conclusion, the findings of job satisfaction studies have been consistent and generally unequivocal. Satisfaction is greater among white-collar than blue-collar workers as a whole, and typically is found to be highest among professionals and businessmen and lowest among unskilled laborers.[33]

In a recent national survey,[34] for example, the highest proportion (42 percent) of very satisfied workers was in the professional-technical classification and the lowest (13 percent) in the unskilled laborer group. (See table 10.) Surprisingly, however, the clerical workers surveyed expressed somewhat less satisfaction with their employment than did semiskilled manual workers. And to a lesser extent, the same was true of sales workers. Moreover, expressions of ambivalent feelings or dissatisfaction by these two white-collar groups were almost identical in frequency to those of unskilled workers.

These findings may well reflect the changing character of both blue- and white-collar employment. They also suggest that the viewpoint of many clerical and sales workers toward their jobs is becoming more akin to that of so-called blue-collar workers than to that of professional and managerial personnel.

The relatively high level of satisfaction expressed by farmers is another notable finding of this survey. Instead of the discontent that might have been anticipated in view of the downward trend of agricultural employment, somewhat the opposite was found. Two possible interpretations may be relevant. First, a selection factor is probably at work, since many of the persons most dissatisfied with farming are likely to have migrated to urban areas. Second, in view of the tie-

TABLE 10. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AND JOB SATISFACTION FOR EMPLOYED MEN

[Percent distribution]

| Level of job satisfaction | Professionals, technicians | Managers, proprietors | Clerical workers | Sales workers | Skilled workers | Semiskilled workers | Unskilled workers | Farmers |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total: Number | 119 | 127 | 46 | 55 | 202 | 152 | 84 | 77 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Very satisfied | 42 | 38 | 22 | 24 | 22 | 27 | 13 | 22 |
| Satisfied | 41 | 42 | 39 | 44 | 54 | 48 | 52 | 58 |
| Neutral | 1 | 6 | 9 | 5 | 6 | 9 | 6 | 4 |
| Ambivalent | 10 | 6 | 13 | 9 | 10 | 9 | 13 | 9 |
| Dissatisfied | 3 | 6 | 17 | 16 | 7 | 6 | 16 | 7 |
| Not ascertained | 3 | 2 | ---------- | 2 | 1 | 1 | ---------- | ---------- |

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Based on data from a representative cross section of adults, 21 years of age or older, living in private households in the United States, reported in Gerald Gurin, Joseph Veroff, and Sheila Feld, *Americans View Their Mental Health* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1960), p. 162.

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[33] This general relationship between satisfaction and occupational level is confirmed both by independent studies of limited occupational samples and by the few broad-gage, multioccupational studies thus far undertaken. See Herzberg and others, op. cit.; Robert Blauner, "Work Satisfaction and Industrial Trends in Modern Society," *Labor and Trade Unionism*, ed. Walter Galenson and Seymour Martin Lipset (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960), pp. 339–360; Harold Wilensky, "Varieties of Work Experience," *Man in a World at Work*, ed. Henry Borow (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1964), pp. 125–154.

[34] Gerald Gurin, Joseph Veroff, and Sheila Feld, *Americans View Their Mental Health* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1960).

TABLE 11. PROPORTION OF FACTORY WORKERS DESIRING DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS,[1] BY INDUSTRY

| Industry | Number | Percent of total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Yes | No | Don't know or "depends" |
| Total | 2,933 | 59 | 32 | 9 |
| Leather | 129 | 71 | 20 | 9 |
| Sawmills and planing | 68 | 71 | 24 | 5 |
| Oil refining | 51 | 71 | 27 | 2 |
| Automobiles | 180 | 69 | 23 | 8 |
| Iron and steel | 407 | 65 | 25 | 10 |
| Machinery | 293 | 65 | 29 | 6 |
| Furniture | 259 | 64 | 29 | 7 |
| Apparel | 265 | 63 | 35 | 2 |
| Chemicals | 78 | 58 | 29 | 13 |
| Nonferrous metals | 88 | 55 | 36 | 9 |
| Textiles | 409 | 54 | 37 | 9 |
| Food | 296 | 51 | 34 | 15 |
| Stone, clay, and glass | 108 | 48 | 25 | 27 |
| Transportation equipment | 93 | 48 | 48 | 3 |
| Paper | 102 | 37 | 49 | 14 |
| Printing | 107 | 36 | 50 | 13 |

[1] Data are based on responses to the question: "If you could go back to the age of 15 and start life over again, would you choose a different trade or occupation?" Although this is not phrased as a direct question about level of job satisfaction, responses can clearly be interpreted as expressions of contentment with present occupational status.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Robert Blauner, *Alienation and Freedom* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 202.

ins between farm work and farm life, the favorable attitudes of respondents may reflect a broad preference not merely for farm employment but also for the general life style it involves.

Although efforts to measure relative levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction have usually focused on occupational groups, job attitudes may be analyzed also in relation to the broader industrial context in which the job is performed. A recently published study of worker alienation[35] shows striking contrasts in subjective reactions to employment in different types of industrial settings. One of the sources drawn upon in this study was a Roper survey[36] of the job attitudes of factory workers in 16 manufacturing industries. (See table 11.)

The fact that roughly 3 out of every 5 workers surveyed wished they "had it to do over again" is in itself an impressive finding, but even more revealing are the exceedingly wide differences in attitude among workers in the various industries. The proportion of workers desiring different occupations was lowest (36 percent) in the printing industry, and double that figure (71 percent) in the leather, sawmill, and oil refining industries. In the other 12 industries covered, the percentages of respondents expressing regrets about their occupations were distributed fairly evenly between these two extremes.

Although these survey data are now more than two decades old, they are no less useful in illustrating the differential impact of a variety of employment experiences. At the same time, it must be recognized that what was true in 1947 cannot be extrapolated to 1968. The need, then, is clearly for more up-to-date information of this general type.

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[35] Robert Blauner, *Alienation and Freedom* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964). The concept of alienation is by no means identical to that of job satisfaction, but like satisfaction (or, more appropriately, dissatisfaction) it has utility in summarizing subjective reactions to work.

[36] Reported in *Fortune*, May and June 1947.

### Factors in Job Satisfaction

The relative importance of different factors in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is found to vary also by occupational group. What individuals perceive as satisfying or dissatisfying is necessarily determined by their values, needs and motives, and expectations, as well as by the objective features of their working environment. Consequently, different groups may have quite different reactions to the same set of job circumstances.

This is illustrated by a recent study of the work motivations of members of an urban population.[37] When asked to rate six employment factors in order of importance, the workers gave responses that reveal marked differences among occupational groups. (See table 12.)

By and large, workers in white-collar categories attached greater significance to the intrinsic factors related to the work itself, while blue-collar workers placed comparatively greater stress on factors pertaining to the context in which work is performed—extrinsic factors. Once again, however, there were unanticipated findings with respect to occupational differences. The factors most often selected by the lower level white-collar groups (clerical and sales) more nearly resemble the choices of skilled blue-collar workers than those of the higher level white-collar workers. The long-standing tendency to use "collar-color" as the most fundamental criterion dividing workers in the occupational structure is challenged by these findings. The relevance of this broad dichotomy to present-day employment is doubtful. The meaning of jobs, in terms of both tasks performed and their significance to workers, can no longer be easily inferred on the basis of traditional occupational labels.

Compensation is clearly revealed as one of the chief factors in worker motivation. All groups except the professional-managerial classification attached the greatest importance to pay. On the other hand, the security factor ranked last among the six listed, except in the case of semiskilled and unskilled workers. But even for these groups, security was judged much less important than pay, and no more important than interesting work and the congeniality of coworkers.

This kind of data requires cautious interpretation. The differences in importance allotted to various aspects of employment conceivably reflect basic psychological differences stemming from distinctive conditions of life. Self-expression, for example, may be given greater emphasis in the culture of the middle-class white-collar worker than

TABLE 12. IMPORTANCE OF DIFFERENT JOB FACTORS TO EMPLOYED ADULTS

| Occupation | Number | Percent specifying intrinsic factors | | | Percent specifying extrinsic factors | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Interesting work | Use of skill, talent | Feeling of satisfaction | Pay | Security | Coworkers |
| Total white-collar | 400 | 65 | 57 | 58 | 62 | 23 | 35 |
| Professional and managerial | 217 | 68 | 64 | 68 | 59 | 16 | 25 |
| Clerical and sales | 183 | 62 | 48 | 46 | 66 | 31 | 46 |
| Total blue-collar | 233 | 55 | 42 | 42 | 73 | 42 | 46 |
| Skilled | 98 | 61 | 51 | 46 | 70 | 33 | 40 |
| Semiskilled and unskilled | 135 | 50 | 35 | 39 | 74 | 49 | 52 |

NOTE: Percentages for each occupational group add to 300 percent because respondents selected factors first, second, and third in importance. Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Based on responses of a selected cross section of employed adults (excluding self-employed) in Greater Los Angeles, reported in Richard Centers and Daphne E. Bugental, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations Among Different Segments of the Working Population," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, June 1966, p. 195.

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[37] Richard Centers and Daphne E. Bugental, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations Among Different Segments of the Working Population," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, June 1966, pp. 193–197.

in that of the industrial worker.[38] On the other hand, the relative importance assigned to different work dimensions may be more reflective of the extent to which worker needs and expectations are satisfied or unsatisfied at the time of questioning. If wages, for example, are not sufficient to provide an adequate level of physical and material comfort, self-expression would probably tend to have relatively little incentive value. Man may not live by bread alone, but the lack of it can surely prevent focusing upon less tangible features of life and work.[39]

Although there is no evidence of a fixed ordering of work factors as determinants of work satisfaction within any given occupational group,[40] there does appear to be some relationship among the various employment dimensions.[41] This interrelatedness may arise from an individual's tendency to respond similarly to different aspects of his job, or it may be that an occupational role that affords one kind of satisfaction provides other kinds of gratification as well. A job that calls for the exercise of considerable skill or talent, for example, is also likely to provide high wages, a good measure of job security, and more than minimally adequate working conditions.

It seems clear from the wide divergences shown by different groups and within each group that any factor of employment may serve to gratify or frustrate worker needs and desires and that no single dimension of employment can be regarded as *the* vital one. However, more evidence is needed to show how each of the several facets of work experience contributes to both the positive and negative attitudes of members of different occupational groups, with a view to determining the significance of these factors in broad social and economic terms.

A recent investigation of shift work [42] illustrates what is probably a more fruitful approach to analysis of the factors affecting particular groups of workers. This study revealed that "odd-hour" work schedules can have a pronounced effect not only on the job satisfaction of workers but also on many other facets of their general well-being—physical, psychological, and social. The problems these workers face in adapting to a society where social, recreational, and cultural activities are geared largely to daytime working schedules are obviously serious and widespread. Although there are no available data that permit the plotting of trends in the prevalence of shift work, it seems likely that such factors as changes in technology and the growth of service occupations point to the scheduling of work as a problem of growing concern.

When the factor of ability or skill usage is singled out for special consideration, the usefulness of examining each of the specific features of employment becomes clear. In a recent examination of the factors underlying differences in job satisfaction, opportunity for the use of skills was found to be the factor most successfully differentiating groups at different levels of overall satisfaction.[43] Almost 80 percent of the low-satisfaction group but only 40 percent of the high-satisfaction group expressed negative feelings about opportunities to use their skills. Similarly, when the mental health of a group of industrial workers was the subject of a research inquiry, feelings about the use of skills was found to be the factor most closely related to differences in this measure of general well-being.[44]

While this finding has great significance in itself, its meaning is brought out even more fully in the context of present concern about underutilization of workers. In the absence of any objective way of assessing the extent to which workers' abilities are underused or misused in their jobs, it seems quite reasonable to make at least tentative judgments about this on the basis of the workers' own subjective estimates. For that mat-

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[38] Some evidence bearing on cultural differences in work values is to be found in a recent study of "underprivileged" workers. When participants in an MDTA program were asked to rank 16 motivational factors in terms of importance, a few notable differences between Negro and white subsamples were obtained. On the whole, however, the two rank orderings were quite similar. See Joseph E. Champagne and Donald C. King, "Job Satisfaction Among Underprivileged Workers," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, January 1967, pp. 429–434.

[39] The concept of need-hierarchy, which holds that the relative unfulfillment of more basic needs precludes preoccupation with so-called "higher order" needs, is relevant here. See Abraham Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review*, July 1943, pp. 370–396.

[40] Indeed, it has been theorized that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on a single continuum and that the factors contributing to one are not the same as those contributing to the other. See Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, *The Motivation to Work* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959). However, evidence bearing on this "motivation-hygiene theory" is by no means clear cut. See, for example, Robert House and Lawrence Wigdor, "Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism," *Personnel Psychology*, Winter 1967, pp. 369–389.

[41] Vroom, op. cit.

[42] Paul Mott and others, *Shift Work: The Social, Psychological, and Physical Consequences* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press, 1965).

[43] Norman M. Bradburn and David Caplovitz, *Reports on Happiness* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965).

[44] Arthur Kornhauser, *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965).

TABLE 13. PERCENT OF WORKERS WHO HAVE HIGH MENTAL HEALTH,[1] FOR SPECIFIED AGE AND OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

| Occupational level | Percent of young workers with high mental health | | Percent of middle-aged workers with high mental health | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Above average satisfaction | Below average satisfaction | Above average satisfaction | Below average satisfaction |
| Skilled | 68 | 36 | 60 | 40 |
| High semiskilled | | | 48 | 24 |
| Ordinary semiskilled | 52 | 14 | 35 | 43 |
| Repetitive semiskilled | 43 | 0 | 38 | 18 |

[1] "High" mental health represents the upper one-third of all workers on a general measure based on six component indexes.

SOURCE: Based on data from sample of 298 manual workers employed by automotive manufacturing plants in metropolitan Detroit reported in Arthur Kornhauser, *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1965), p. 87.

ter, if the major focus of manpower concern is on worker well-being, the subjective estimate may well be the most relevant one.

A still more basic question that might be asked is: How do work and nonwork activities compare as sources of worker satisfaction? Although few studies of worker satisfaction have sought information bearing on this question, the findings of a recent survey of government employees point strongly to the centrality of employment in the total life context.[45] On the average, both blue- and white-collar respondents considered their jobs far more important to feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction than three other major facets of life (recreation, education, and church).

## Job Satisfaction and Overall Well-Being

If the quality of work is to be a useful concept, its development must involve recognition that work and employment experience cannot be assessed adequately apart from other life experiences. Although job feelings may be a focal point, it is clear that the broader significance of worker attitudes and job satisfaction will be revealed only as their interrelationships with other personal and social factors are traced. However, there are as yet few data dealing with the relationships between work and nonwork attitudes—between satisfaction with employment conditions and satisfaction with other facets of life.[46] This dearth of information reflects the fact that job attitude research has been, for the most part, conducted by or within business enterprises, usually with the object of contributing to personnel efficiency. But there are fortunately a few notable exceptions.

Striking relationships between job satisfaction and mental health are shown, for example, by the study of Detroit industrial workers.[47] (See table 13.) Within each occupational (skill) level sampled, and among both younger and older workers, those who expressed above-average job satisfaction were also judged to have higher levels of mental health. Thus, 52 percent of the young, semiskilled workers who were above average in job satisfaction had high mental health, as compared with 14 percent of those below average in job satisfaction.

The close tie-ins between occupational or socioeconomic level, job satisfaction, and mental health are further illustrated by the findings of a large-scale inquiry into the relationships between mental disorder and the social environment of an urban community.[48] Among workers of high socioeconomic status (SES), more than 75 percent indicated very much satisfaction with their occupations, compared with just 43 percent of the low socioeconomic group. Conversely, at the lower end of the satisfaction scale, more than two and one-half times as large a proportion of low SES as of high SES respondents liked their work not so much or not at all. (See table 14.)

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[45] Frank Friedlander, "Importance of Work Versus Nonwork Among Socially and Occupationally Stratified Groups," *Journal of Applied Psychology,* December 1966, pp. 437–441.

[46] See Kornhauser, op. cit. Kornhauser found positive, though moderate, relationships between job satisfaction and satisfactions with family and home, leisure time, and community. Although the direction and degree of relationships do not permit firm conclusions about job feelings determining feelings in other spheres of life, they do cast serious doubt on the validity of a contention that those who lack satisfaction in work can somehow compensate for this lack in nonwork activities.

[47] Kornhauser, op. cit.

[48] Thomas S. Langner and Stanley T. Michael, *Life Stress and Mental Health* (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1963).

But the differences in mental health among people at different levels of occupational satisfaction are the most significant findings of this study. In general, the lower the level of job satisfaction, the greater the mental health risk.[49] Those who are least able to experience gratification in employment are also apt to face difficulty in achieving a satisfactory state of mental health.

The relationship between job satisfaction and "happiness" appears as direct as that between such satisfaction and mental health, according to a survey in four communities.[50] Respondents scoring high on a job satisfaction index were far more likely to describe themselves as "very happy" than those scoring low on the index (56 percent and 13 percent, respectively). This relationship holds true not only at the extremes of the satisfaction scale, but in the middle group as well. (See table 15.)

Job satisfaction also appeared to be directly related to and influenced by broader socioeconomic conditions in each of the four communities (two depressed, one improving, and one prosperous). Men in the lower socioeconomic group were more dissatisfied with their jobs in the prosperous communities than those in the same low group in the comparatively depressed communities. Deprivation is relative as well as absolute—the same conditions of employment may have considerably different meaning, depending on the available bases for comparison. In other words, low wages may not be as great a cause for dissatisfaction in a depressed community, where unemployment is substantial and wages generally low, as are the same low wages in an area where there is greater affluence visible nearby—as, for example, in central city ghettos surrounded by affluent suburbs.

Taken together, these data indicate convincingly that job feelings, reflecting the gratifications and deprivations of the work situation, bear a pronounced relationship to broader psychological well-being. Job satisfaction measures will clearly serve as a good beginning point in the develop-

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[49] Although not all differences were found to be statistically significant, the trends were, with limited exception, consistent and in the "right" direction. To be noted also is the tendency for differences in mental health ratings to be reduced as satisfaction is controlled.

[50] Bradburn and Caplovitz, op. cit.

TABLE 14. JOB SATISFACTION AND MENTAL HEALTH RATING[1] OF MEN AND NEVER-MARRIED WOMEN AT DIFFERENT SOCIOECONOMIC LEVELS[2]

| Level of job satisfaction | Total | | Socioeconomic status | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Low | | Middle | | High | |
| | Job satisfaction distribution | Mental health rating | Job satisfaction distribution | Mental health rating | Job satisfaction distribution | Mental health rating | Job satisfaction distribution | Mental health rating |
| Total: Number | 914.0 | ---------- | 272.0 | ---------- | 322.0 | ---------- | 320.0 | ---------- |
| Percent | 100.0 | ---------- | 100.0 | ---------- | 100.0 | ---------- | 100.0 | ---------- |
| Very much | 57.5 | 0.45 | 43.0 | 0.58 | 51.6 | 0.46 | 75.6 | 0.39 |
| Fairly much | 27.9 | .59 | 36.0 | .57 | 32.9 | .50 | 15.9 | .49 |
| Not so much | 8.1 | .52 | 12.5 | .63 | 8.4 | .58 | 4.1 | .52 |
| Not at all | 3.9 | .67 | 4.1 | .68 | 5.9 | .65 | 1.9 | .71 |
| Don't know, no answer | 2.6 | ---------- | 4.4 | ---------- | 1.2 | ---------- | 2.5 | ---------- |

[1] The larger the rating, the worse the mental health of the group. The average rating is by definition .50.

[2] Based on occupation, education, income, and rent.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Based on data from a random sample of individuals, aged 20 to 59, selected from dwelling units in midtown Manhattan, reported in Thomas S. Langner and Stanley T. Michael, *Life Stress and Mental Health* (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1963), p. 309.

TABLE 15. JOB SATISFACTION AND LEVEL OF HAPPINESS OF EMPLOYED MEN

[Percent distribution]

| Level of happiness[1] | Job satisfaction index[2] | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Total: Number | 127 | 153 | 72 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Very happy | 13 | 36 | 56 |
| Pretty happy | 70 | 59 | 42 |
| Not too happy | 16 | 5 | 1 |

[1] Respondents' answers to the question: "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days—would you say you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?"

[2] Index combining satisfaction with different aspects of work. The basis for dividing respondents into the three groups is not specified.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Based on data from a sample of employed men, aged 25 to 49, in four Illinois communities, reported in Norman M. Bradburn and David Caplovitz, *Reports on Happiness* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965), p. 37.

ment of more general measures of the quality of employment.

## Development Needs

Although the information now available clearly permits tentative conclusions, it does not justify confident judgments about the psychological impact of work on broad population groups or on changes in job satisfaction over time. Few agencies outside the Federal Government can engage in the broad survey activities needed to produce reliable and comprehensive data. Existing data-gathering systems might well be reviewed now to determine what modifications are required to elicit, on a continuing basis, comprehensive data on the attitudes of workers toward their occupational situation generally and toward specific facets of their employment. Such data would be of inestimable value in gaging the character and magnitude of changes in the quality of work for the labor force as a whole and its principal subgroups.

In addition to fairly broad and direct measures of the psychological impact of employment obtainable through labor force surveys, far more complete information about specific conditions of employment is much needed. Comprehensive data about such factors as the number and scheduling of working hours, vacation and holiday provisions, retirement arrangements, and participation in training and other developmental activities can help in evaluating the individual and social significance of different conditions of employment.

Indicative of the value of focusing on particular features of employment is the study of shift work already cited.[51] By both confirming and extending the findings of earlier investigations, this research seems to justify some fairly confident conclusions about the negative effects of different shift arrangements. Unfortunately, however, the absence of comprehensive data on the prevalence and incidence of various patterns of working hours precludes an adequate assessment of the pervasiveness of shift-related problems. With the collection of comparable information on this and other significant aspects of working conditions, it should be possible to develop a reasonably comprehensive set of measures of the overall context of work.

If meaningful and generally acceptable indexes of the quality of employment are to be developed, however, the current limited efforts to refine concepts and measures, and to expand research on the complex interrelationships among the characteristics of the individual, his job, and his environment must be greatly intensified. Efforts to date have served the more limited objectives of employers and academic scholars better than the much broader and more stringent requirements of national planning.

Largely for this reason, a wide range of basic questions now needs to be translated into research. There is, for example, far too little information available to make firm judgments about differences in the meaning of work for various segments of the population, particularly ghetto residents and others who have had only limited employment opportunity. Nor is there yet a sufficient factual basis for conclusions about the work values and expectations of youth entering the labor force and how they are subsequently molded by employment experiences. Research on such questions is beginning, but for the present, at least, they are largely imponderable. A much broader data-gathering effort will be required to provide the amount and types of information in this area essential to effective policy and program planning.

In the long run, it is hoped that ways also can be found to overcome the national propensity to define as problems and regard as progress only those conditions that lend themselves to quantitative measurement. The goodness of life of individuals, and the planning designed to improve life, must encompass dimensions not amenable to precise measurement.

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[51] Mott and others, op. cit.

## LABOR STANDARDS PROTECTION

Longstanding recognition that work can, under certain conditions, have negative consequences for the worker has led, over the years, to the development and application of a variety of protective labor standards designed to cope with specific employment hazards. These standards—whether defined by laws, collective bargaining agreements, or simply generally accepted practice by employers—have protected the welfare of individual workers, and have also been an essential component of the Nation's broad effort to enhance the well-being of its workers and their dependents.

The protections afforded workers who suffer low wages and loss of income because of unemployment, illness, or accident have been discussed earlier in this chapter. Other hazards a worker may meet include unreasonably long hours or unsafe working conditions, nonpayment of wages, lack of compensation and medical care in case of illness or injury, work at too early an age, unsatisfactory employer-employee relationships, exploitation by private employment agencies, or discrimination because of race, age, sex, or other conditions.

The development of labor standards, as a protection against these hazards, has been a continuous rather than a static process. Their evolution has reflected changes in technology and other factors in the working environment and also an improved understanding of how working conditions affect the worker.

Both the Federal and State governments have established labor standards by law and administrative regulation. Federal legislation applies equally to workers within the coverage of the law, throughout the Nation. Under State legislation, however, there are inevitable differences in provisions from one part of the country to another, affecting both workers and employers. Employment conditions and problems vary greatly among the States—notably between those highly industrialized and those still largely agricultural. In some States labor unions have organized large proportions of the workers, with consequent improvement in working conditions. In others, such organizations are weak, and their efforts to improve working conditions have been less effectual.

This section attempts to assess the extent of protection workers may count upon under State laws, by no means an easy task. Evaluation of labor legislation does not lend itself readily to quantification. Differing premises and judgments are bound to enter into appraisal of the quality of laws. Nevertheless, some consensus has developed as to what constitutes desirable legislation in various areas of public concern. The basic recommended standards reflect both State and Federal experience. They represent the result of extensive consultation and exchange of expert judgment at both the technical and policymaking levels.

The need for positive, cooperative action by employers to improve the quality of employment must be emphasized also. More systematic exchanges of experience and a new kind of cooperative searching for good solutions to labor standards problems are needed—forward steps which ordinarily cannot and should not involve legislative prescription.

### The Labor Standards Index

While recognizing the limitations of any effort to attach a numerical value to the status of labor laws, the Department of Labor has undertaken an experimental effort to develop a Labor Standards Index that measures the extent to which State laws approximate the recommended standards.[52] The index measures only the provisions of the laws, not performance. Federal legislation is not included. Several major areas of Federal legislation have, however, been discussed in earlier sections of this chapter (unemployment insurance, OASDHI, and the minimum wage standards of the Fair Labor Standards Act).

The Labor Standards Index covers eight major areas in which States have adopted protective legislation. As of 1965, several States still lacked legislation in some of the areas. Fifteen States, for example, had no minimum wage laws; 13 did not provide protection against discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin; 28 did not protect older workers against discrimination because of age. And varying numbers of States had failed to meet the basic standards in other areas.

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[52] The index was constructed for eight selected subject fields, by assigning weights to major provisions of the relevant standards and providing partial credit (against a maximum score of 100) based on the extent to which a given legislative provision met the recommended standard. The index included a State-by-State score for each of the eight labor standards, a national score for each standard, and a composite index for the combined standards in the 50 States.

The average scale for all States on the Labor Standards Index was 53 when the index was constructed in 1965—indicating a gap of nearly 50 percent between the laws then in effect and the recommended standards. The variation was wide, ranging from a score of only 15 for one State to a high of 90 for another. A comparison of the national average ratings for each of the eight labor standards areas also showed great differences. (See table 16.)

The regional variation was similarly wide. Of the 25 States with scores below the average, only one was in the Northeast, whereas seven were in the North Central region, 13 in the South, and four in the West.

For the most part the low-ranking States were either those not yet highly industrialized or those in which industrialization is only now proceeding at a fairly rapid rate. With the recognized advantages of industrialization comes realization of the worker needs it brings with it and growing public support for meeting these needs through improved labor laws and standards. Progress in this area has therefore traditionally followed upon industrial development. It may be assumed that labor and other support for improved standards in newly industrializing States will help these States catch up with those where industrialization occurred earlier.

TABLE 16. AVERAGE RATING ON LABOR STANDARDS INDEX, BY LABOR STANDARDS AREA, 1965

| Labor standards area | Number of States[1] with laws in specified areas | Average rating of all States on index |
|---|---|---|
| Occupational safety and health | 50 | 64 |
| Child labor | 50 | 59 |
| Workmen's compensation | 50 | 54 |
| Wage payment and wage collection | 47 | 61 |
| Private employment agencies | 46 | 64 |
| Fair employment practice | 37 | 54 |
| Minimum wage | 35 | 40 |
| Antiage discrimination | 22 | 26 |

[1] Excludes the District of Columbia.

What the lack of protection means to individual workers cannot be measured, but it is possible to indicate how many have the least protection. Nearly 40 percent of the country's nonagricultural workers were employed in the States that fell below the average rating (53) on the index. The following tabulation shows the distribution of workers among States with high and low ratings:

| *Rating of State on Labor Standards Index* | *Number of States* | *Percent distribution of nonagricultural employment* |
|---|---|---|
| Total | 50 | 100 |
| Less than 25 | 2 | 2 |
| 25 to 49 | 20 | 28 |
| 50 to 74 | 19 | 34 |
| 75 and over | 9 | 36 |

The States with the greatest deficiencies in their labor laws also tend to be those where workers are most disadvantaged in other ways. Of the 23 States where the incidence of family poverty was greater than the national average in 1959 (the latest date for which such information is available), 20 ranked among the lowest on the Labor Standards Index. It is significant also that States with below average scores on the index were also below average in union membership.

Since the Labor Standards Index was constructed in 1965, several States have adopted new legislation in one or another of the eight areas included in the index. An even greater number have passed amendments to their labor standards legislation.

A full evaluation of the new legislation and amendments has not been possible as yet. When the progress made by many States in updating their laws is reflected in the index, this will undoubtedly raise the average score somewhat, and also bring a few States formerly at the low end of the scale into the middle or upper range. However, many of the States that have improved their laws already had high LSI scores in 1965. Relative differences in labor standards protection among the States probably remain much as they were 3 years ago.

## Needed Improvements in the Index

The Labor Standards Index is admittedly a rough measure of legislative adequacy. It has certain shortcomings which can be eliminated by further refinement. Perhaps the most serious is the fact that it does not incorporate weighting for the relative importance of different kinds of labor laws, and so fails to indicate where action is most needed.

Since labor standards are in constant change, reflecting changing conditions, the first and most urgent need is to reassess constantly not only the index itself, but also the whole basis of the index, to make sure that both are up to date. Changing technology, growing recognition of workers' needs, and increased understanding of the psychological as well as the physical factors in well-being demand constant, watchful care. In addition to serving as a measurement of the current situation, the index has great possibility as an indicator of future program direction.

The index should look beyond the laws. More knowledge of actual working conditions is essential to the development of an adequate indicator of progress toward social and individual well-being. What are the most important labor standards? How are social, economic, and other changes affecting them? Do presently accepted labor standards adequately reflect current thinking? What are the actual consequences for workers of inadequate labor standards protection?

The LSI as presently constructed does not measure the impact of labor laws for the workers concerned. A law, however good, if not enforced or if poorly administered, has little or no protective effect. In the final analysis, the adequacy of labor standards legislation must be measured by the extent to which it meets the current needs of the workers it was designed to help. Assessment of administration is an essential component of an improved index.

# Equality of Opportunity

Equality of opportunity is a goal which must be sought in every aspect of our national life. It is one which has been denied all too often by discrimination on the basis of race, color, sex, age, religion, national origin, lack of education, or even locality. This section, however, is concerned only with equality of opportunity for ethnic minority groups—in jobs, earnings, and the chance for advancement and a satisfying work life.

The legal framework for rapid implementation of equal opportunity, presumed the birthright of every American, was set by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and related legislation. Together with court decisions and executive orders, and supported by the civil rights movement, these laws gave hope of rapid improvement in the social and economic situation of ethnic minorities, including Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians, as well as Negroes.

The complexity and the interaction of the various manifestations of discrimination and segregation have become increasingly apparent, however, as efforts to implement the Civil Rights Act have proceeded. It is now clear that occupational advancement may be handicapped as much by discrimination in education and training earlier in the worker's life as by bias in hiring and promotion, and that the available jobs are often geographically inaccessible to the poor in both central city ghettos and rural areas. It has become evident, too, that discrimination and segregation can raise psychological barriers that need to be resolved before minority manpower can compete for jobs on an equal basis.

Thus, in measuring progress toward equal economic opportunity, indicators such as employment and unemployment are not enough. One must look also to educational trends and patterns of segregation in education and housing, and to changes in income levels. Rising income not only gives evidence of progress toward a better life but also reflects the ability of minority families to give their children the education and training needed for full participation in employment opportunities.

Furthermore, progress toward equality of opportunity cannot be assessed merely in terms of advances made by the minority groups. The gap in economic status between them and the white majority must be closed. This is a crucial objective, but not an easy one to reach in view of the rapid economic advances made by the majority.

## NEGROES

The Negro population has made substantial gains in employment, education, and income during the 1960's measured in absolute terms. The relative Negro-white gap has narrowed in some areas but broadened in others.[53]

In interpreting this record, it is important to keep in mind certain demographic handicaps to more rapid upward movement. In 1966, more than half the Negro population, double the proportion of whites, lived in the South, where educational attainment and average incomes are generally lower than in other regions. And although Negroes have been migrating from the rural South, much of this movement has been into major industrial cities, where they have had difficult adjustment problems, partly because of the shrinking employment opportunities in unskilled manual jobs.

### Employment and Unemployment

The number of employed nonwhite workers[54] rose from 6.9 million to 8.0 million between 1960 and 1967, an increase of 16 percent. During the same period, employment of white workers rose by only 13 percent. (See table 17.)

Unemployment rates for nonwhite workers, as for whites, have dropped since the early 1960's. Nevertheless, unemployment rates for nonwhites are still slightly more than twice those for whites (7.4 compared with 3.4 percent in 1967).

No inroads have been made into the extremely serious problem of nonwhite teenage joblessness. (See chart 12.) While the unemployment rate for

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[53] See also the chapter on Trends in Employment and Unemployment for a discussion of recent developments in the employment situation of nonwhite persons. For a more extensive discussion, see *Social and Economic Conditions of Negroes in the United States* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October 1967), BLS Report No. 332 and Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 24. This report has been drawn upon to a considerable extent in the present discussion.

[54] Only limited data for Negroes are available. However, statistics for nonwhites generally reflect the conditions of Negroes, who represent 92 percent of all nonwhites.

TABLE 17. EMPLOYED AND UNEMPLOYED PERSONS, BY COLOR, 1960–67

[Numbers in thousands]

| Year | Employed | | Unemployed | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nonwhite | White | Nonwhite | White |
| 1960 | 6, 927 | 58, 850 | 787 | 3, 063 |
| 1961 | 6, 832 | 58, 912 | 970 | 3, 742 |
| 1962 | 7, 004 | 59, 698 | 859 | 3, 052 |
| 1963 | 7, 140 | 60, 622 | 864 | 3, 208 |
| 1964 | 7, 383 | 61, 922 | 786 | 2, 999 |
| 1965 | 7, 643 | 63, 445 | 676 | 2, 691 |
| 1966 | 7, 875 | 65, 019 | 621 | 2, 253 |
| 1967 | 8, 011 | 66, 361 | 638 | 2, 338 |
| Change, 1960–67: | | | | |
| Number | 1, 084 | 7, 511 | −149 | −725 |
| Percent | 16 | 13 | −19 | −24 |

white teenagers dropped as the economic climate improved, among nonwhite teenagers the rate in 1967 was actually higher than in 1960. One out of every four nonwhite teenagers was unemployed in 1967, almost 2½ times the proportion for white teenagers, whereas in 1960 the ratio was less than 2 to 1. Furthermore, the Neighborhood Youth Corps and other recent programs have probably had more impact on unemployment among nonwhite teenagers. In the absence of these programs the situation might well have been far worse.

Among older nonwhite workers, however, the rate of joblessness has been reduced significantly. For married nonwhite men 20 years old and over, unemployment rates declined especially fast. Although the nonwhite rate is twice that for married white men, the differential is narrower than in 1962 (when it was 2½ times the rate for whites). (See chart 13.)

## Occupational Changes

Substantial gains have been recorded also in the occupational distribution of adult nonwhite workers. In the high-skill, high-status, high-paying occupations, the percentage increase of nonwhite workers has exceeded that of white workers, with most of the gains—aided by sustained economic growth and a tightening job market—occurring in the last few years. Thus, the occupational gap is narrowing although slowly. (See table 18.)

The increase of nonwhite jobholders in professional and clerical occupations was particularly significant, as was also their increase in skilled occupations. Nonwhite employment gains in these occupations and in operative jobs in steel, automobiles, and other durable goods manufacturing industries where pay rates are high, accounted for 900,000 of the 1 million added jobs for nonwhites that developed from 1960 through 1966. However, the numbers and proportions of nonwhites in these occupations were so small at the beginning of the decade that, despite these major advances, almost 45 percent of the nonwhite men and 60 percent of the nonwhite women were employed in service, laborer, and farm jobs in 1966—more than double the proportions for white workers.

Not measurable statistically, but important in their implications for the future, are the breakthroughs Negroes have made into many white-collar occupations previously closed to them, the opening up of more apprenticeship opportunities, the upgrading of Negroes employed in the Federal Government (which has been much more rapid than for whites), and similar manifestations of progress toward equality of occupational opportunity.

While it is difficult to determine the extent to which job discrimination is responsible for the unequal occupational distribution of Negroes, or to measure trends in job discrimination, the upward movement of Negroes into the better paying occupations would seem to reflect a lessening of discrimination as well as the better educational preparation of young Negroes now entering the labor force.

An analysis of compliance reports by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, covering essentially employers of 100 or more workers, reveals significant industry differences in the extent of minority employment. These data underrepresent agriculture, small business services, government, and nonprofit organizations, and overrepresent manufacturing generally, as well as certain specific manufacturing industries. They do, nevertheless, provide insight into minority employment at the present time; they will also provide a measure of change in the years to come.

According to the Commission's 1966 data, Negroes are generally concentrated in industries where a large proportion of the jobs are in low-wage occupations. As higher paying jobs increase in an industry, the probability of Negro employment in it is lowered. This phenomenon is more marked for Negro men than for women. But for both, employment relative to that of Anglos is many times greater in low-wage than high-wage industries.[55] (See table 19.)

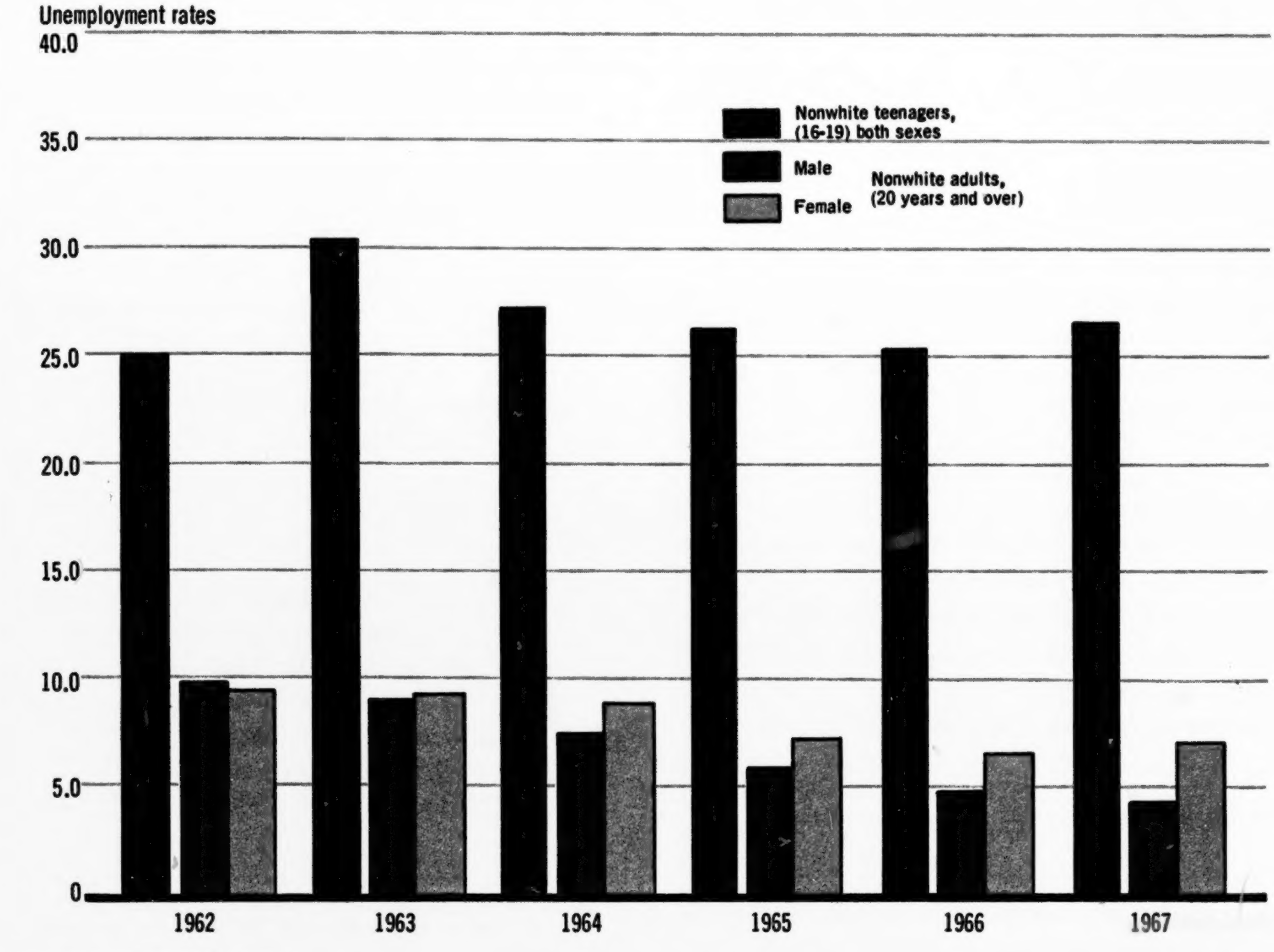
When the occupational position of Negroes in the industries studied is compared with that of white workers having the same amount of education, considerable discrimination is indicated. The overall occupational position of Negro men was estimated to be 23 percent below that of whites, with differences in educational attainment accounting for a third of this difference (or perhaps as much as half if allowance is made for qualitative differences in education). The remaining difference is largely attributable to anti-Negro bias.

It appears that, in the industries studied, occupational discrimination against Negro men increases in direct relation to the concentration of Negroes in the industry, to the ratio of well-paid occupations in the industry, to the level of education of the Negroes involved, and to the proportion of the industry's employment found in the South.

For Negro women the discrimination is more limited, and they are not penalized as their educa-

CHART 12

**Excessive unemployment rates for nonwhite teenagers show no improvement.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

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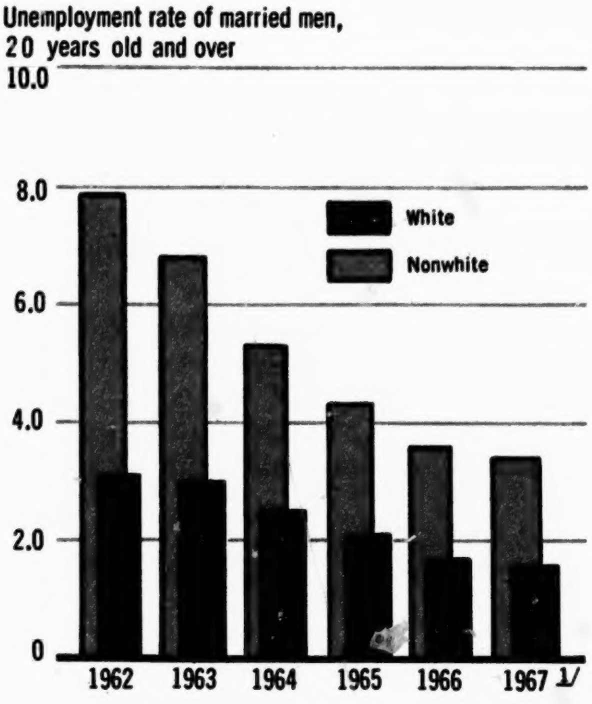
[55] Data were gathered for the ethnic minorities. The term "Anglos" was used to distinguish whites who were members of other than Spanish surname groups.

CHART 13

**Although the unemployment rate for nonwhites declined by more than half between 1962 and 1967, it was still twice as high as for whites.**



1/ Represents data for first 9 months.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

tional level rises. This apparently lesser discrimination is due essentially to the much more limited range of occupations for women in industry, with underrepresentation of Negro women concentrated in clerical occupations.

The heavy overrepresentation of Negro males in the low-wage industries indicates that, even if they were given equal opportunity to rise, promotion would promise only limited financial rewards. What is required to solve the problem is not only opportunity for occupational upgrading for Negro men in the industries where they are, but also greatly increased opportunities for entrance into industries with more high-paid, skilled jobs.

### Potential Workers Not in the Labor Force

The proportion of men in the working ages who neither work nor look for work is another indicator of inequality of opportunity, since discouragement in finding jobs is an important reason for being outside the labor force (as indicated earlier in this chapter). Nonwhite men are less likely to be in the work force than are white men—except in age groups under 24 where the longer school attendance of white youth outweighs other factors affecting labor force participation. Between 1960 and 1967 the proportion of nonwhite men 25 to 64 years of age not in the labor force rose from 73 to 91 per 1,000 people; among white men, the increase was less—from 47 to 55.

### Family Income

Average income remains much lower for Negro than for white families, despite some narrowing of the differential.[56] Negro median family income represented only 58 percent of the median for white families in 1966 compared with 54 percent in 1964.[57]

Most encouraging was the marked reduction in the percentage of nonwhite families living in poverty. The nonwhite proportion below the poverty level, however, was more than three times that for white families, just as it had been in 1960.

Another significant change was the relatively greater proportion of nonwhite families moving into the $7,000 and over income class. In 1960 almost 2½ times as large a proportion of white as nonwhite families were at this income level. But in 1966 the proportion was slightly less than double. (See chart 14.) This indication of progress is tempered, however, by the fact that only 12 percent of the nonwhite families in this category had incomes of $10,000 or over, in contrast to 30 percent of the white families.

### Education

Prospects for raising the level of Negro life are related to progress in their educational achievement, and substantial gains have been made in this direction. For young men 25 to 29 years of age the gap in years of school completed between nonwhites and whites has been reduced from 2 years in 1960 to a half year in 1966. It is also notable that, between 1960 and 1965, the proportion of Negro men 25 to 34 who graduated from college almost doubled; for Negro women the relative gain was smaller but significant. Today, moreover, young Negro men are obtaining more schooling than Negro women, a reversal of the pattern that had long persisted among Negroes and an indication of the growing opportunity for the educated Negro male.

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[56] For a discussion of the disparity in earnings between nonwhite and white workers that underlies these income differences, see the discussion of Adequacy of Workers' Earnings earlier in this chapter.

[57] Figures for Negro family income, as separate from all nonwhite, are available only from 1964.

Educational attainment, as measured by years of schooling, gives no indication, however, of whether differences in the quality of education, as measured by achievement tests, are being reduced. The Coleman Report,[58] based on a 1965 national survey, shows that at the 12th grade, the average Negro youth is performing at a ninth-grade level, whereas the average white youth is performing well above the 12th grade level. The gap in achievement level, apparent early, broadens between the sixth and 12th grades. Comparable data for 1960 are not available, and it is thus impossible to gage the progress achieved through the aid to poor school districts provided under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and other remedial programs.

### Progress and Retrogression

A picture of both progress and retrogression emerges from these figures. The growing proportion of Negro families with moderate incomes or better, the larger number of Negro males graduating from college, and the growth in representation of Negroes in professional, technical, and other white-collar occupations augur well for the talented group that has been able to upgrade itself and take advantage of available opportunities.

But at the other end of the scale are the rural poor and the slumdwellers. Some advance for them is evidenced by the reduction in the proportion of families with incomes of less than $3,000. But many slum residents appear to be in a deteriorating economic position.

A 1965 census survey of Cleveland, for example, points both to advances for some of the Negro population and to retrogression for others. Thus, Negroes living in sections of the city outside low-income neighborhoods doubled in number between 1960 and 1965. And the poverty ratio among them declined more than three times as much as for whites outside these neighborhoods.

However, in the lowest income neighborhood—the so-called "crisis ghetto," which is predominantly Negro—conditions deteriorated sharply. Population declined somewhat, but the number of people living in poverty rose, as the number of

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[58] James S. Coleman, *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1966), p. 21.

TABLE 18. EMPLOYED PERSONS BY OCCUPATION AND COLOR, 1967, AND PERCENT CHANGE, 1960–67

[Numbers in thousands]

| Occupation | Number, 1967 | | Percent change, 1960–67 [1] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nonwhite | White | Nonwhite | White |
| Total | 8, 011 | 66, 361 | 15. 6 | 12. 8 |
| Professional, technical, and managerial workers | 801 | 16, 574 | 58. 0 | 17. 8 |
| Clerical workers | 899 | 11, 435 | 78. 7 | 23. 6 |
| Sales workers | 138 | 4, 387 | 39. 4 | 4. 6 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 617 | 9, 229 | 48. 7 | 12. 9 |
| Operatives | 1, 882 | 12, 002 | 33. 4 | 14. 3 |
| Service workers, except private household | 1, 519 | 6, 037 | 25. 4 | 27. 2 |
| Private household workers | 835 | 934 | −15. 8 | −13. 9 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 899 | 2, 635 | −5. 4 | 4. 1 |
| Farmers and farmworkers | 423 | 3, 130 | −49. 6 | −27. 1 |

[1] The data for 1960 used to compute the percent change for the period 1960–67 were estimated for persons 16 years and over by color.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

TABLE 19. EMPLOYMENT OF MINORITY GROUPS AND ANGLOS, BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, 1966 [1]

[Numbers in thousands; percent distribution]

| Occupation | Men | | | | | Women | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Negro | Oriental | American Indian [2] | Spanish American [3] | Anglo | Negro | Oriental | American Indian [2] | Spanish American [3] | Anglo |
| Total: Number | 1,472 | 86 | 39 | 453 | 15,962 | 648 | 46 | 17 | 202 | 7,228 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Professional and technical workers | 2.0 | 29.3 | 6.6 | 4.7 | 13.9 | 6.1 | 18.2 | 5.6 | 3.6 | 7.4 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 1.0 | 7.0 | 6.5 | 2.5 | 12.0 | .7 | 1.9 | 2.2 | .8 | 2.6 |
| Clerical workers | 2.7 | 8.3 | 3.9 | 5.1 | 7.1 | 17.5 | 41.1 | 21.7 | 24.1 | 40.8 |
| Sales workers | 1.3 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 3.0 | 7.4 | 4.0 | 5.9 | 12.5 | 6.9 | 9.3 |
| Craftsmen | 7.9 | 13.6 | 19.3 | 13.9 | 20.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 5.1 | 4.8 | 2.8 |
| Operatives | 37.2 | 14.0 | 29.9 | 32.1 | 25.5 | 24.9 | 11.4 | 24.2 | 29.8 | 21.7 |
| Service workers | 18.1 | 12.1 | 6.7 | 12.2 | 5.4 | 30.3 | 12.2 | 16.9 | 12.4 | 9.1 |
| Laborers | 29.8 | 10.9 | 22.3 | 26.4 | 8.4 | 14.1 | 7.0 | 11.8 | 17.6 | 6.4 |
| Percent of total population (including Anglos) employed | 8.2 | .5 | .2 | 2.5 | 88.6 | 7.9 | .6 | .2 | 2.5 | 88.9 |

[1] The data were collected from employers with 100 or more workers.

[2] Nonreservation Indians.

[3] Includes both Puerto Ricans and Mexican Americans.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Compliance Reports.

low-income families headed by women increased. For such families median real income dropped 15 percent, while in the rest of the city it was moving upward. The unemployment rate for men was 15 percent and for women, 17 percent—in both cases, substantially higher than in 1960. The 1965 census of the Watts area of South Los Angeles yielded very similar findings. Some of the deterioration in the low-income neighborhoods probably stemmed from out-migration of people who could afford to move and in-migration of poorer ones.

## OTHER ETHNIC MINORITY GROUPS

The main ethnic minority groups in the United States, in addition to Negroes, are Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians. All are economically disadvantaged, though their difficulties differ in both kind and degree.

These groups suffer from limited education and language barriers. High unemployment and low incomes are a reflection of their inability to advance into fields of work which might offer hope for improved economic conditions. Discrimination is another factor inhibiting their advancement.

### Mexican Americans

The Mexican Americans in the United States live almost entirely in the Southwest (Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas), with about 80 percent concentrated in Texas and California. The Mexican American population in the Southwest increased from 3.5 million in 1960,[59] to an estimated 4.6 million in 1967, and will reach

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[59] "Persons of Spanish Surname" is the title used by the Census Bureau to denote all persons of Spanish or Mexican origin in the Southwest. Since most of the Spanish surname population of the Southwest are persons of Mexican descent, the designation of "Mexican Americans" is used here to refer to this population group. It includes natives of native parentage, natives of foreign parentage, and immigrants. (The section on Mexican Americans in the *1964 Manpower Report of the President* limited its discussion to Mexican Americans born in Mexico and the natives born of immigrant parents.)

5 million by 1970.[60] About 85 percent of the population were born in the United States, and the vast majority lives in cities.

Mexican Americans share many of the difficulties of other minority groups. Language and physical characteristics set them apart from the rest of the population. They tend to live in segregated communities and have little education and an above-average rate of unemployment. And they are employed for the most part in low-status, low-paying jobs. The competition of Mexicans who move back and forth across the border compounds economic difficulties for those in the border States.

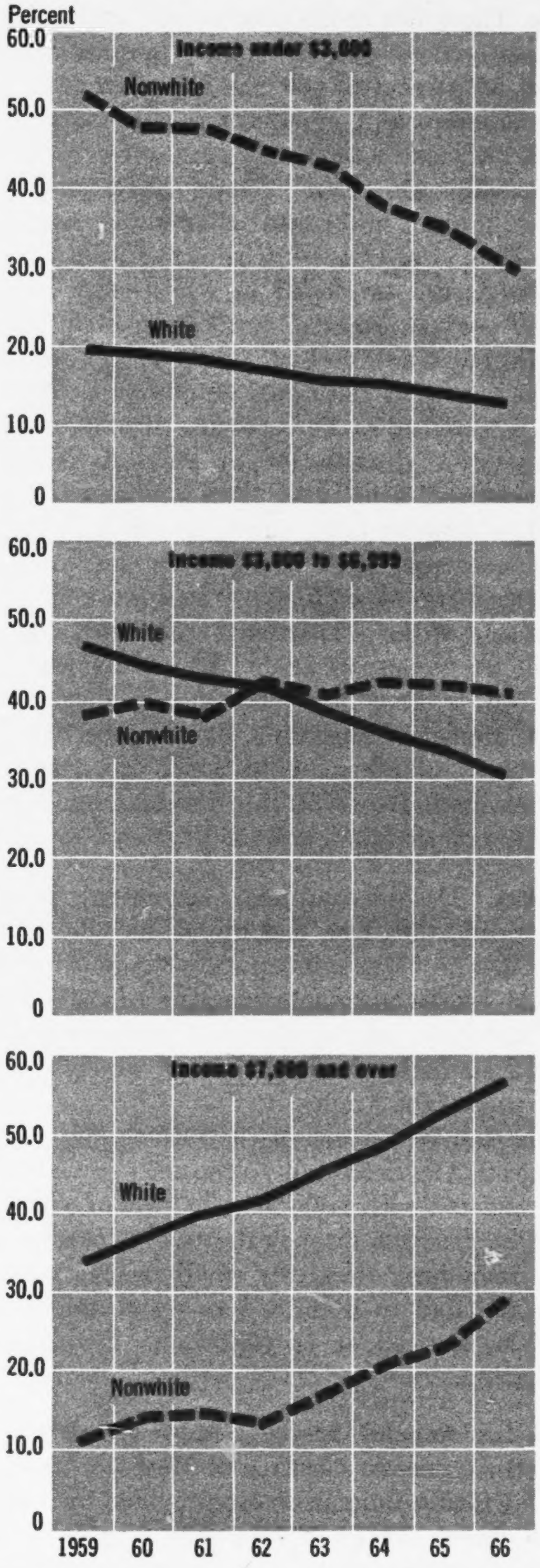
Despite the large numbers of Mexican Americans in the United States, there are no data of national scope subsequent to 1960, by which their economic and social situation can be measured. If the trends evident between 1950 and 1960 have continued—namely, the movement from rural to urban locations and from lower income to higher income areas (particularly to California)—the standard of living of Mexican Americans as a group should be rising in absolute terms. There are indications, too, that the native-born members of the group are raising their educational sights and that, to some extent, the young people are moving into better occupations. But no definitive judgment can be made as to whether the educational, occupational, and income gap between Mexican Americans and Anglos has narrowed substantially.

***Education.*** Among the minorities, only the Indian has poorer educational preparation than the Mexican American. In 1960, the median years of school completed by Mexican American men aged 25 and over in the Southwestern States ranged from 4.8 in Texas to 8.5 in California. In all these States, the figure was at least 3½ years below that for Anglo men.

The gap in schooling between Mexican Americans and Anglos is narrower among younger men who have completed their education more recently. In 1960, the difference in educational attainment for those aged 14 to 24 was only 2 years in the Southwest generally, and little more than a year in California. However, the proportion of Mexican American young people completing high school is small and the proportion completing college even smaller.

CHART 14

**Percent of nonwhite families with income under $3,000 has dropped sharply but is still twice that for whites.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce.

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[60] From an unpublished estimate prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

***Occupational Distribution.*** Mexican American men are found primarily in manual occupations. To the extent that they hold white-collar jobs, these tend to be in small establishments in retail trade. Those few in the professional and technical occupational category are mostly in technical jobs. About 30 percent of the men were farm and nonfarm laborers, and 40 percent worked in craft and operative jobs in 1960.

Mexican American women have made far greater inroads into white-collar employment than have men. Almost two-fifths of the women living in cities were employed in white-collar occupations—a much smaller proportion than among Anglos but notably greater than for nonwhites.

The survey by the Equal Opportunity Commission referred to earlier provides 1966 data on the occupational distribution of Mexican American employees of firms with 100 or more workers in the Los Angeles-Long Beach and San Francisco-Oakland areas. These data show a continued concentration of Mexican American workers at the lower end of the occupational scale, with over half employed as operatives or laborers and only one-fifth in white-collar jobs—mostly clerical and sales. Mexican Americans, like Negroes, are concentrated in industries in which low-wage jobs predominate. However, this disadvantage is much less pronounced than it is for Negroes.

***Income.*** Despite minimal schooling, Mexican American adult men had higher incomes in 1960 than men in other minorities in the Southwestern States—with the notable exception of the Japanese in California, whose relatively high earnings reflect their high educational level, which exceeded even that of the Anglos.

Close to 90 percent of the income gap between Mexican American and Anglo men in California is associated with differences in level of education, and the situation is much the same in other States. The remaining relatively small income gap may be attributed to wage and occupational discrimination, as well as to differences in quality of education.

***East Los Angeles Survey.*** More recent insights into the economic situation of Mexican Americans in California slum areas are provided by a special 1965 census survey of East Los Angeles—a low-income area in which some three-fourths of the population (35,000) are Mexican Americans. In general, the findings support the view that, for those who do not escape from the slums, there has been little, if any, improvement in the quality of life.

The Mexican American population of East Los Angeles rose by 7,400 between 1960 and 1965. This was the net result of an increase of more than 9,000 in the foreign-born population and a reduction of some 2,000 in the native-born population—probably reflecting the movement of the more prosperous families into better neighborhoods.

Unemployment rates in the area showed some improvement over the 5-year period—declining from 9.2 to 7.8 percent for Mexican American men, and from 8.1 to 7.1 percent for women. These 1965 rates were still well above the 6 percent unemployment rate for the Los Angeles-Long Beach area as a whole, but considerably below those in the predominantly Negro South Los Angeles district.

The occupations of Mexican American men showed the same concentration in manual jobs in 1965 as in 1960, with the largest proportion in operative and kindred jobs (42 percent) and only minimal representation in white-collar employment.

Developments in the educational situation of the Mexican American population in East Los Angeles were both favorable and unfavorable. The proportion of the school-age population enrolled in school rose from 52 to 60 percent between 1960 and 1965. Enrollments in high school and in college also increased. However, among Mexican Americans aged 25 or over, median school years completed declined slightly—from 8.1 to 7.7. Factors which may have contributed to this decline were the greater proportion of men aged 60 and over in the population in 1965, as compared with the earlier date, and the increased proportion that were Mexican born.

The median income of the Mexican American families in East Los Angeles remained about the same between 1959 and 1964 ($5,089 as compared to $5,052). These figures make no allowance, however, for the sharp rise in living costs during this period.

### Puerto Ricans

Puerto Ricans are American citizens, predominantly of the white race, but they share with other minority groups the problems of low educational attainment and language barriers, the difficulties of finding work in the higher status, higher paying jobs, and unemployment rates much above the national average.

The overriding difficulty in an attempt to assess the present social and economic situation of Puerto Ricans is the almost complete lack of data. Special studies yield limited information. The little information available on Puerto Ricans in New York City—where two-thirds of the migrants and their children are concentrated—indicates little if any progress in the present decade.[61]

Since 1960, Puerto Ricans have made up a steadily growing proportion of the New York City population—from 8 percent in 1960 to an estimated 11 percent in 1966.[62] Migration to mainland United States is decreasing, however, and is expected to level off at approximately 10,000 annually, from a rate more than twice that high 10 years ago.[63]

The New York Puerto Rican population was estimated at 841,000 in 1966. It is a young population. A large proportion are teenagers—with all the problems of their age group in finding employment, further complicated by lack of language facility, poor education, and discrimination.

***Employment and Unemployment.*** While the number of Puerto Ricans at work in New York City was greater in 1967 than in 1960, their unemployment rate remained higher than for the labor force as a whole. In September 1967, roughly 12 percent of the unemployed in the State of New York were Puerto Ricans.[64]

Indicative of the extreme problem of teenage unemployment among Puerto Ricans are the findings of a sample survey in the Bronx, N.Y., in the spring of 1966. Of all unemployed Puerto Ricans, 24 percent were 14 to 19 years old, and another 19 percent were between 20 and 24 years of age. For Negroes in the Bronx, the comparable figures were 10 and 16 percent, respectively.[65]

***Occupational Distribution.*** Puerto Ricans are employed predominantly in the lower paying jobs. In metropolitan New York in 1960, 71 percent of all employed Puerto Rican men were service workers, laborers, and operatives and kindred workers, compared with only 31 percent of other white men and 61 percent of all nonwhite men. A recent study in New York City[66] emphasizes that, while the percentage of nonwhite men in white-collar occupations is increasing, no such trend is apparent for Puerto Ricans. Between 1960 and 1966 the proportion of Puerto Rican men employed in white-collar occupations remained at about 17 percent. Puerto Rican women, in contrast, made sizable gains in white-collar employment during the 6 years.

It is relevant also that the Compliance Reports of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission show almost identical occupational distributions of Puerto Rican and Negro men in the New York City establishments covered.

***Education.*** There has been no marked improvement in recent years in the educational level of the Puerto Rican group as a whole. More than 50 percent of both men and women 25 years and older have had less than 8 years of formal education. Only about 13 percent are high school graduates.[67]

There are, however, some indications of upward educational movement among the Puerto Ricans. Children, in general, are better educated than their parents. This is similar to the experience of earlier immigrant groups, but the educational growth appears to be taking place at a slower rate for Puerto Ricans.

Of the Puerto Ricans 20 to 34 years of age living in New York City in 1963, about 37 percent had some high school education, and about 21 percent were high school graduates. In contrast, only 14 percent of the 35- to 49-year-old group had some high school education, and an equal proportion were high school graduates. Among Puerto Ricans aged 50 to 64, the proportion with these levels of education was 10 percent in each case.

But the situation, even for the young, is not encouraging. Ninety percent of the New York City

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[61] *The Puerto Rican Community Development Project* (New York: Puerto Rican Forum, Inc., 1964), p. 30.

[62] Based on New York City Population Health Survey, 1965. The surveys are based on a probability sample of about 5,400 households a year, and thus conclusions are subject to many limitations.

[63] *A Summary in Facts and Figures, Progress in Puerto Rico-Puerto Rican Migration* (San Juan, P.R.: Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, Department of Labor, Migration Division, 1965), 1964–1965 Edition.

[64] Report of the State Employment Service, New York Department of Labor. Based on number of persons who applied for, were receiving, and/or had received all benefits of unemployment compensation and were still unemployed.

[65] "A Profile of the Bronx Economy" (New York: Institute of Urban Studies, Fordham University, n.d.), Household Survey, mimeographed.

[66] M. J. Wantman, "Changes in White-Collar Employment of Nonwhite and Puerto Rican Residents of New York City, (1960–1965)" (New York: The City University of New York, Center for Social Research, n.d.), Population Health Survey, Research Memorandom, mimeographed.

[67] A report on the first citywide Puerto Rican Community Conference, called by Mayor John V. Lindsay, in 1966.

Puerto Rican high school graduates in 1966 received only a general diploma, which is little more than a certificate of attendance. Although there appeared to be some increase in the proportion of Puerto Rican young people in academic and vocational high schools in 1967, there is no significant change in their high dropout rate. Almost two-thirds of the children are retarded in reading. This is not surprising since, of some 227,000 Puerto Ricans in New York City schools in 1967, about 100,000 did not speak English.[68]

***Income.*** Poverty is significantly greater among Puerto Ricans than among any other identifiable racial or ethnic group in New York City. This is in part a consequence of the low educational attainment of the Puerto Rican population, and the low-skilled, low-status jobs at which they work.

The 1966 Bronx survey showed that 30 percent of all Puerto Rican households were below the $3,000 income level, as compared with 29 percent of Negro households and 18 percent of non-Puerto Rican white households. An additional 45 percent of Puerto Rican households reported incomes between $3,000 and $5,000, while comparable rates for Negroes and for other whites were 33 and 18 percent, respectively.

### American Indians

American Indians were reported in the 1960 census as numbering 552,000, including all native peoples of Alaska. Since that time the total has grown to well over 600,000. Of this number, somewhat more than 400,000 are reported by the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the U.S. Department of Interior to be residents of Indian reservations. This reservation population has never been accurately identified either by number or by characteristics.

Despite the lack of available data, it is clear that Indians living on reservations are among the most disadvantaged minorities in the country. Many suffer from serious handicaps of poor health, deficient education, unfamiliarity with English, lack of marketable skills, high unemployment, and low income.

These conclusions are based on scattered information limited, for the most part, to reservation and reservation-community Indians. Further complicating appraisal of the situation is the steady and increasingly planned departure of many of the abler members of the Indian communities. It is estimated that net out-migration from the reservations is now approaching 10,000 each year, largely offsetting the high rate of natural population growth. Among this number are hundreds of families whose working members have benefited from vocational training or direct job placement services of the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

***Employment and Unemployment.*** The Indian labor force—defined as all Indians of employable age neither in school nor prevented from working by retirement, ill health, or child-care obligations—is estimated at 130,000, some 10 percent greater than in 1962. About 82,500 of them were at work in 1967, but how many were fully employed is not known. Fragmentary information indicates that some occupational upgrading is taking place, that fewer Indians are working at farm jobs and more at skilled and semiskilled jobs, and that year-round employment is increasing—trends evident since 1950. These advances are minimal, however, when compared with those of the labor force generally.

Since 1962 the Bureau of Indian Affairs has expanded its program to promote the location of manufacturing industries on the reservations. In 1960, nine plants providing a total of 599 jobs were built on or near reservations. By September 1967, the number of plants had risen to 113, employing 5,510 Indians. This development is accompanied by on-the-job training. For persons seeking employment away from the reservation, there is a program of institutional training and job placement that has expanded steadily in recent years.

The usual definition of unemployment is not a satisfactory measure of joblessness on the reservations, because so few job opportunities are available there. Accordingly, the Bureau of Indian Affairs reports as unemployed all members of the reservation labor force (as defined above) who are not at work. The Bureau's semiannual reservation reports show a significant favorable trend. From about 49 percent in 1962, the unemployment rate declined to 41 percent in 1966 and, by 1967, to 37 percent. This reduction of 12 percentage points, when applied to the 1967 labor force of 132,000, indicates that 15,000 more Indians were at work last year than would have had jobs if the 1962 unemployment rate had continued unchanged. This improvement appears to have resulted from recent emphasis on Indian employment opportunities near the reservations and development of reservation-based industries, both greatly strengthened by long-sustained national prosperity.

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[68] Release, Board of Education of the City of New York, November 3, 1967.

***Income.*** Three-fourths of the reservation families had cash incomes of less than $3,000 in 1966, according to estimates by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Yet Indian families are larger, on the average, than those of any other ethnic group. No other ethnic group approaches so high a proportion of families living in poverty. However, these comparisons make no allowance for substantial Federal services available to Indians.

***Education and Training.*** There are signs of continuing improvement in education of American Indians. School enrollment has been growing steadily. The majority of the children now attend public schools, rather than special Indian schools. Moreover, the education available is showing qualitative improvement, as teaching is improved and extracurricular activities are expanded with financial aid under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The number of Indians attending college also has shown some growth. In 1966, over 4,000 Indians were enrolled in universities and colleges—1,500 more than in 1957, with half the gain taking place since 1964. In 1966, 120 Indians graduated from 4-year colleges and universities, more than twice as many as in 1961.

In an effort to reach the hard-core unemployed, the Bureau of Indian Affairs has established several residential employment-training centers. Programs initiated under the Economic Opportunity Act are expanding educational, training, and work-training opportunities for Indians. Programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act also have had an impact on training of reservation Indians, for whom a number of specific projects have been designed. The Federal-State Employment Service is also strengthening its services to Indians, as recommended by the first National Conference on Manpower Problems of Indians, held in February 1967.

## INFORMATIONAL NEEDS

The attempt to evaluate, either quantitatively or qualitatively, the present situation of minority groups, especially the smaller ones, is beset with difficulties stemming in large part from the lack of comprehensive, current data.

In the past few years, measures of manpower and social trends—population, family composition, health, education, mobility, employment and unemployment, occupations, income, housing, voter registration—have been greatly expanded for all nonwhites as a group and particularly for Negroes. The problems to which these overall measures point warrant much more intensive study, however. The stubborn problem of Negro teenage unemployment is one of these; the reasons for the growing proportion of Negro men neither working nor looking for work is another; the relative lack of mobility toward white-collar jobs and high-level positions within employing firms is a third. The Labor Department has launched a number of studies into these and related Negro problems. Periodic investigation of many of these problem areas is essential to the development of programs and policies designed to correct the social ills involved.

For other minorities, the lack of data is much more pronounced. While the Bureau of Indian Affairs gathers statistics regularly on the Indian and Eskimo populations under its jurisdiction, they differ in concept, scope, and technique from those collected for Americans generally. The Bureau is currently planning to include recent out-migrants from reservations in their statistical surveys so that a more complete appraisal of Indian progress can be made. Information on employment, occupations, and earnings of Indians is in particular need of improvement.

For the Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans, the absence of data is also striking. The problems involved in obtaining more adequate and current information for these groups deserve intensive exploration.

In depth investigation is needed also to indicate solutions to problems already evident. It is important to find out, for example, why the position of Puerto Ricans in New York shows no visible improvement, despite the slowing down of immigration, and what accounts for the pronounced and continuing educational lag among Mexican Americans.

# Manpower Requirements and Resources

In the manpower problem areas so far discussed, the record of the past several years has been one of major achievements but also of continuing grave deficiencies in meeting workers' employment needs. The central aim of manpower policy in all these areas has been to promote the welfare of workers and potential workers, and the progress made in each of them has been and should be assessed primarily from this viewpoint.

The second broad objective of manpower policy—meeting the manpower requirements of our economy and society—has also demanded increased attention and program action. The sustained economic expansion of the past 7 years has generated greatly increased manpower requirements, brought employment to record levels, and sharply reduced the overall rate of unemployment. During the first few years of the expansion, enlarged employment needs could generally be met by hiring unemployed workers. But beginning in late 1965, a tightening of the manpower demand-and-supply situation was reported. The country thus faced a highly paradoxical manpower situation—with skill shortages reported in many occupations and local areas, while large numbers of workers remained idle or underutilized.

As the President said in his *1966 Manpower Report:*

> There is no overall labor shortage. But the unemployed and underemployed are not fully matched with the jobs available.
>
> Specific shortages of labor can slow up the expansion of the economy. They can put pressure on costs and prices.
>
> We are determined to do whatever is necessary to keep the economy expanding and avoid inflationary bottlenecks.

The President then outlined plans to head off manpower shortages through program action. Among the steps he called for was inclusion in the Department's employment reports of "the fullest possible information on existing or threatening labor shortage situations."

The new program for identifying and reporting on labor shortages accordingly undertaken has utilized a variety of statistical indicators, most of them providing indirect rather than direct evidence of the labor supply-and-demand situation. Direct evidence of labor shortages could come from statistics on current job opportunities, but so far such statistics are available only from experimental surveys in a few labor areas. Data on unfilled job openings registered with local Employment Service offices—at present the major source of direct information on skill shortages—give a much better picture of labor needs in some industries and occupations than in others.

Indirect evidence on labor scarcities, however, can be gleaned from several series of economic statistics, including the unemployment rates and hours of work. By itself, no one of these series would be a reliable measure of manpower imbalances. But together, they can provide a composite picture of a tightening or loosening job market and give warning of labor shortages as well as unused manpower resources.

That the current manpower situation reflects mismatches between requirements and supply, rather than any general exhaustion of labor reserves, is underlined by all the available evidence. The extreme type of general labor shortage, involving depletion of labor supply to the point where employment increases are impossible, has occurred only once in this country's recent history—during World War II. The labor shortages of the past several years have been sometimes temporary, sometimes chronic, but always limited to specific occupations, industries, or localities.

Limited labor shortages of these kinds are easiest to define and classify when they can be related to unfilled job openings. However, the concept must be stretched to include also unmet needs for the self-employed (for example, physicians) and positions that have had to be filled with less qualified applicants (as has sometimes happened, for example, in teaching), difficult as the problems of definition become in both situations. One goal in further research on current job opportunities and labor shortages will be to clarify these elusive definitional problems. At the same time, research will be directed toward developing more precise measures of shortages and guiding needed adjustments in both manpower demand and supply.

## CURRENT JOB OPPORTUNITIES

Information on current job opportunities is potentially the most effective measure of labor shortages. If detailed and comprehensive data were available on job opportunities, these would constitute sensitive indicators of the changing state of local job markets. Together with unemployment statistics and other data, they could be a powerful aid in detecting occupational and geographic imbalances in manpower demand and supply. Job opportunity statistics could thus help to guide economic policy aimed at minimizing fluctuations in employment. And they could be particularly valuable as a guide in planning manpower programs aimed at more efficient matching of workers and jobs.

For reasons such as these, the Department of Labor recently intensified its research program to test the feasibility of collecting job opportunity data.[69] Pilot studies have demonstrated that a viable survey yielding reasonably accurate current information could be instituted. The results also reinforce the presumptions just indicated regarding the contributions this information can make in appraising the job market situation and guiding manpower policy and programs.

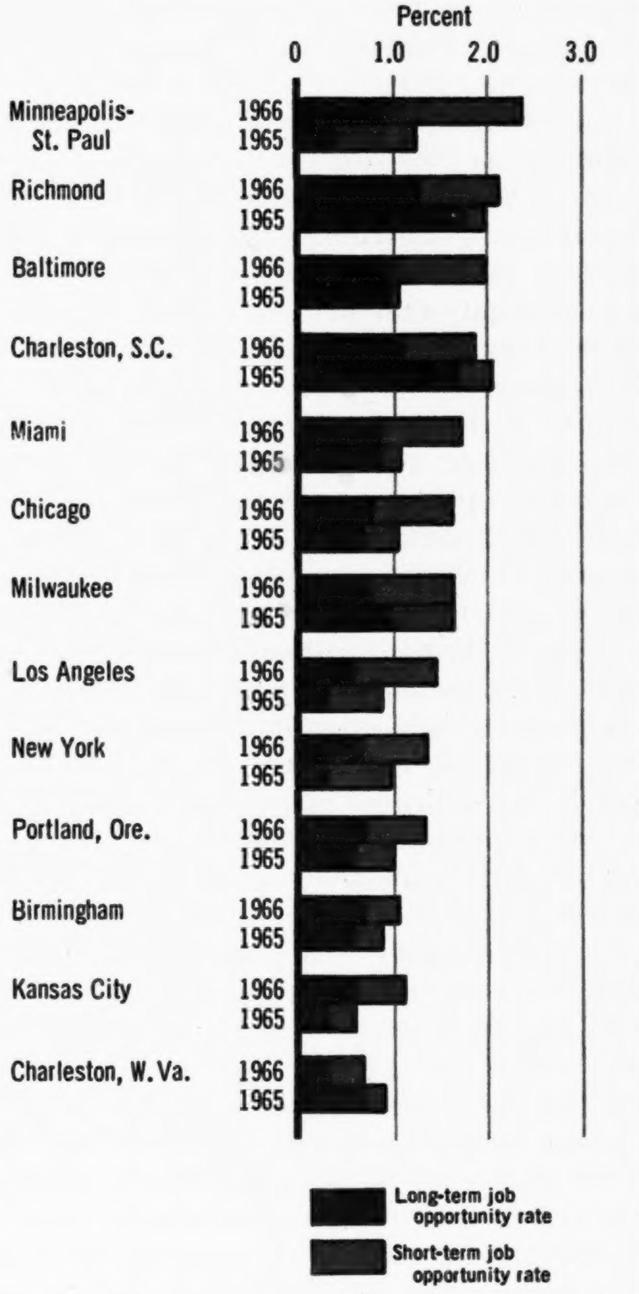
Before discussing a few key findings of these experimental surveys, a major caution concerning their interpretation is in order. This survey program is so new and the techniques so experimental that it is difficult to distinguish altogether between substantive findings, atypical variation, and sampling error. The results should be regarded not as exact measures but as approximations around which the precise answers would tend to cluster. More definitive conclusions will be possible when the surveys are repeated on a regular basis and the results studied over time in relation to other economic measures.

The job market tightened sharply between 1965 and 1966 in many local areas, according to the Department's surveys. The job opportunity rate (the number of unfilled opportunities as a percent of the total number of filled and unfilled jobs in the area) was found to be higher in April 1966 than the year before in 10 of the 13 areas surveyed in both years. (See chart 15.) In six areas, the rate rose by at least 50 percent, and in three of these by more than 80 percent.

To explore the reasons for current job opportunities and, in particular, to determine whether a given opening in reality denotes a labor shortage, it is essential to know how long the job has remained unfilled, the nature and size of the occupation, the seasonal pattern of employment, the turnover rate, wages, and other factors affecting both labor demand and labor supply. Even in periods of business recession, job opportunities occur frequently as people change jobs or leave the

CHART 15

**Job opportunity rates rose sharply between April 1965 and April 1966 in most areas surveyed**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

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[69] For a further discussion of the need for a count of job vacancies and recommendations for a research program on this subject, see *Measuring Employment and Unemployment* (Washington: President's Committee to Appraise Employment and Unemployment Statistics, 1962), pp. 199–202.

work force and employers seek new workers to replace those who leave. If the openings are filled quickly, they cannot be interpreted as indicative of labor shortages. But when openings are of long duration and hence in the "hard-to-fill" category, they are likely to reflect either a lack of workers with the required skills or such problems as substandard wages, poor working conditions, inaccessible plant locations, or unrealistic hiring specifications.

Approximately half of all opportunities reported in the 1966 surveys had remained unfilled at least a month and were classed as hard to fill. The long-term opportunity rate was higher in 1966 than the year before in half the areas covered and declined in only a few of them.

The extremely wide range of occupations for which current job opportunities were reported is another significant finding. There were unfilled openings, both long-term and short-term, at every occupational level from unskilled jobs to professional positions. The relative numbers of openings in the various occupational categories differed greatly among areas, however, reflecting the areas' differing industrial character, as well as the local manpower supply-and-demand balance.

In general, the proportion of long-term opportunities was highest in the professional, managerial, and skilled groups (nearly 55 percent, on the average, in the areas surveyed in April 1966). And in certain professions and skilled occupations the proportion of opportunities that were in the hard-to-fill category was even greater. For example, 9 out of every 10 of the openings for trained nurses and of those for tool and die makers had been unfilled for 30 days or longer—testifying to the severe personnel shortages in these occupations.

To test whether substandard wages were a significant factor in the job opportunity situation, wage rates were obtained in connection with the opportunity information. In general, the wages listed were in line with entry rates for the same occupations, as determined from local Employment Service records. But a sizable minority of the opportunities (about 15 to 20 percent, according to very limited data from the 1966 surveys) offered wages below the usual entry rates.

Information about the proportion of hard-to-fill job opportunities traceable to these substandard wage offers and the occupations in which they were concentrated has not been provided by the initial surveys. Since this information is basic to the interpretation of job opportunity data and to an understanding of labor shortage problems, they are among the items that need to be explored in depth in further job opportunity research.

## OTHER JOB MARKET INDICATORS

The tightening of the manpower supply-and-demand situation in 1965–66 extended beyond the areas covered by the vacancy surveys to the economy generally. This is made plain by the numbers of unfilled job openings listed with Employment Service offices throughout the country, the average weekly hours and quit rates of factory workers, and the national unemployment rate. (See chart 16.) These indicators also show easing of the job market during early 1967 (as discussed in detail in the chapter on Trends in Employment and Unemployment). But they give mutually confirming evidence that manpower demand at the end of 1967 was still much above the levels of the early 1960's—and labor scarcities are likely to be a continuing problem in a good many occupations and local areas.

### Employment Service Unfilled Openings

In the absence of up-to-date, nationwide statistics on current job opportunities, the unfilled job openings on file with public Employment Service offices are the best available direct measure of manpower demand and supply. Only about a third of all job opportunities are listed with the Employment Service, however. And some industries and occupational groups—many of the professions, for example—make little if any use of public employment offices. Nevertheless, major changes in the numbers or types of openings listed with local offices often provide clues to overall shifts in demand for workers.

An increase of over 50 percent in unfilled job openings listed with the Employment Service took place between June 1965 and April 1966, testifying to the growing job market stringency. (See chart 16.) The rise in unfilled openings during these 10 months (from 280,000 to 430,000, according to seasonally adjusted data) was greater than had occurred during all the previous 4 years of steady economic expansion.

The decline in unfilled openings after September 1966 was an equally clear signal of a loosening job market in many sections of the country. But in most months of 1967 the number of unfilled job openings on file at local offices exceeded all records for the same month for years prior to 1966, indicating continued demand for qualified workers in a wide range of occupations.

The scarcity of professional, technical, and managerial personnel is reflected in the high proportion of job openings in these occupations that have remained unfilled as long as 30 days or more. There was some easing of shortage problems even in professional and related occupations during 1967, but the great majority of job openings in these occupations remained in the hard-to-fill category, as shown by the following figures for 77 major metropolitan areas:

*Percent of Employment Service job openings unfilled 30 days or longer*

| *Date* | *All occupations* | *Professional, technical, and managerial* |
|---|---|---|
| 1966: January 1 | 49 | 66 |
| April 1 | 45 | 74 |
| July 1 | 56 | 81 |
| December 1 | 57 | 74 |
| 1967: March 1 | 49 | 66 |
| June 1 | 45 | 71 |
| December 1 | 49 | 72 |

## Hours of Work

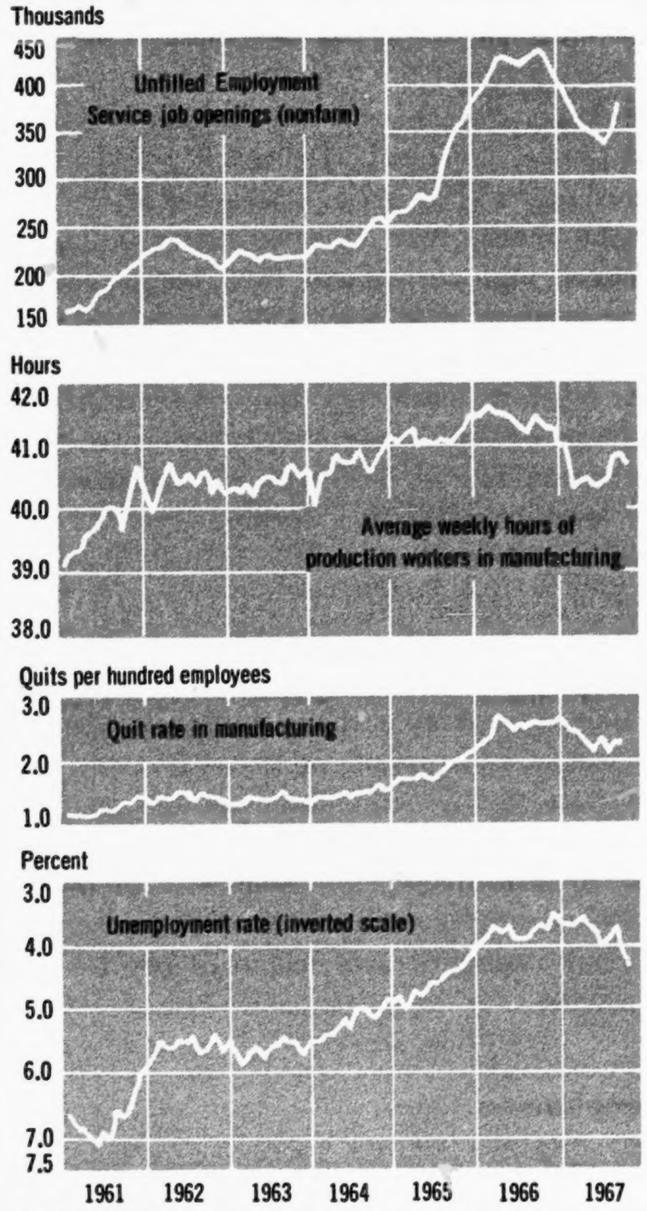
Changes in hours of work are one of the most sensitive, early indicators of changing labor demand. Under certain circumstances, increases in working hours also can be a signal of emerging labor shortages.

When experienced workers are not available, employers often respond to an increase in product demand by lengthening hours of work. And conversely, when demand is slack, they generally reduce working hours before laying off workers. This practice has been accentuated in recent years by the rising costs of hiring and training new workers, the expansion of severance pay and other fringe benefit provisions, and the consequent importance of holding down employee turnover rates. Some industries, such as automobile manufacturing, regularly schedule large amounts of overtime to meet peak production demands.

During the most recent period of intense demand for labor, in 1965 and early 1966, average hours worked rose sharply (though not nearly to the level reached during World War II, when the average factory workweek exceeded 45 hours for many months). In early 1966, working time in manufacturing reached a postwar high of 41½ hours per week. Then, after midyear, hours of work edged downward irregularly. In early 1967, with the easing of demand and of labor shortage problems, average hours fell to less than 40½ per week, but turned upward after mid-year.

CHART 16

**Important job market indicators[1/] show similar trends.**



1/ Seasonally adjusted data.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

## Quit Rates

The proportion of workers quitting their jobs provides still another test of the job market. Traditionally, quit rates have risen when employment opportunities are improving. They have traditionally fallen when new positions are hard to find and workers are therefore less likely to quit.

Quit rates in manufacturing industries rose from an average of 19 per 1,000 workers per month in 1965 to 26 per 1,000 in 1966. The latter figure was fairly close to the rate during the Korean war (29 per 1,000 in 1951) but still well below the record figure of 63 per 1,000 reached in 1943, during the World War II labor shortage. The rate remained high throughout 1966, but it slackened to an average of 23 per 1,000 for the year 1967.

The highest quit rates are not found in industries (such as machinery and construction) with shortages of skilled workers. On the contrary, they are encountered in industries with relatively low pay levels, unattractive working conditions, seasonal employment, and a low-skilled labor force. These industries historically have found it difficult to attract and retain workers in periods of rapid economic growth and abundant job opportunities. In 1966, for example, the furniture, leather, lumber, textile, and apparel industries had the highest quit rates of any major branches of manufacturing. There is little doubt that many service and other nonmanufacturing businesses with low wage scales had similar problems of employee turnover, although statistics are not available for these industries.

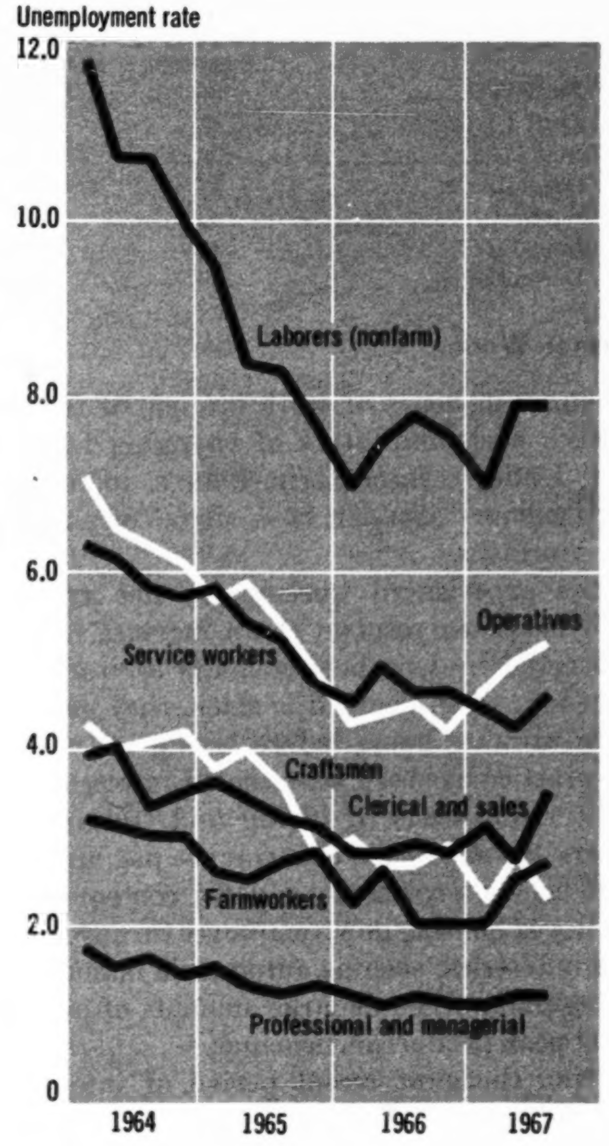
## Unemployment Rates

Unemployment rates for the work force generally, and for different occupational groups and geographic areas, add another dimension of insight into the labor demand-and-supply situation. During the past 3 years, the changes in unemployment rates have confirmed the evidence of other job market indicators as to the tightening and then loosening job market.

That no general shortage of labor has occurred during the economic upturn of the past 7 years is substantiated by the unemployment rates, as well as much other evidence. The lowest figure to which the national unemployment rate dropped during any quarter in this period was 3.7 percent (in the last quarter of 1966 and the first of 1967, on a seasonally adjusted basis). Compared with the average unemployment rate of 4.5 percent in 1965 and of over 5 percent in preceding years, this figure represented a great gain. But even with unemployment down to 3.7 percent of the total work force, the rate of joblessness remained very high among specific groups of workers (youth, nonwhites, the unskilled) and in particular local areas. And the national average rate was still well above the frictional minimum associated with nor-

CHART 17

**Unemployment rates are lowest for professional and managerial workers–highest for nonfarm laborers.**



Note: Quarterly averages, seasonally adjusted.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

mal labor turnover and seasonal fluctuations in employment.[70]

This country has continued to have large numbers of unutilized workers. But manifold and difficult problems of mismatching of workers and jobs will have to be overcome, before these potential manpower reserves can be fully utilized, as is suggested by the differential rates of unemployment in different occupations and local areas.

In professional, technical, and managerial occupations, the rate of unemployment has been about 1.2 percent for the past 2½ years. (See chart 17.) This low level of unemployment is undoubted evidence of widespread personnel shortages in many professional and related occupations.

The unemployment rates for craftsmen and for clerical workers have also been relatively low (under 3 percent in most months of 1966 and 1967). For operatives and service workers, they have been much higher, however. And nonfarm laborers have had far the highest unemployment rates of all (7 percent or higher even in 1966, and close to 8 percent in mid-1967). The fact that lack of skill debars many workers from qualifying for the available jobs is all too apparent.

Wide differences in unemployment rates exist also among local labor areas—pointing to serious geographic mismatching of workers and jobs. Many local areas have had very low unemployment rates at the same time that others had surplus labor. (See table 20.)

The number of areas with high levels of unemployment has decreased sharply over the past 3 years. Nevertheless, 9 of the 150 major labor areas had substantial unemployment throughout 1967, and nearly 500 smaller areas were classified as having substantial or persistent unemployment at the end of the year.

Even within local areas there are manpower imbalances to which the area unemployment data provide no clue. Occupational mismatching of workers and jobs has plagued many communities, as well as the country generally (according to reports from local employment offices and other sources). Furthermore, in many large metropolitan areas, residents of central city ghettos are isolated from the general job market and unable to take advantage of expanding job opportunities in the suburbs.[71]

TABLE 20. UNEMPLOYMENT CLASSIFICATIONS OF 150 MAJOR LABOR AREAS, QUARTERLY AVERAGES, 1965–67[1]

| Period | Number of areas with— | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Low unemployment | Moderate unemployment | Substantial unemployment |
| **1965** | | | |
| 1st quarter | 23 | 98 | 29 |
| 2nd quarter | 33 | 94 | 23 |
| 3rd quarter | 46 | 85 | 19 |
| 4th quarter | 48 | 83 | 19 |
| **1966** | | | |
| 1st quarter | 53 | 80 | 17 |
| 2nd quarter | 59 | 78 | 13 |
| 3rd quarter | 58 | 83 | 9 |
| 4th quarter | 65 | 77 | 8 |
| **1967** | | | |
| 1st quarter | 60 | 81 | 9 |
| 2nd quarter | 59 | 82 | 9 |
| 3rd quarter | 56 | 85 | 9 |
| 4th quarter | 52 | 89 | 9 |

[1] Areas are classified as having low unemployment when the unemployment rate is 1.5 to 2.9 percent; as moderate when it is 3.0 to 5.9 percent; and as substantial when the rate is generally 6 percent or more. See "Explanation of Area Classifications" in *Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration), any recent issue.

## INFORMATIONAL NEEDS

This brief review of the statistical evidence regarded as the most effective now available for assessing the manpower supply-and-demand situation makes two things clear. It is possible to draw well-confirmed conclusions about the overall tightness of the job market and the changing extent of labor shortages from these statistics, and to obtain some insights into the most critical problems. But it is usually impossible, on the basis of present information, to pinpoint and measure labor shortages in particular local areas or particular occupations. The planning of training programs and other measures to relieve manpower imbalances is thus greatly hampered.

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[70] According to a recent estimate, a minimum level below which unemployment could probably not be reduced (except under conditions of full mobilization) might be reached in the range of a 2- to 2.5-percent overall unemployment rate. See Arthur M. Ross, "Techniques for Identifying Labour Shortages and Illustrations of Techniques for Meeting Short-Run and Seasonal Labour Shortages," paper presented at International Conference on Employment Stabilization in a Growth Economy at Munich, October 1967 (Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), p. 8.

[71] For a discussion of this problem, see the chapter on Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development.

If up-to-date information on job opportunities were available for different labor areas, this would help greatly in improving the efficiency of job market operations and in making manpower programs more effective at the community level, where they are actually implemented. Much progress on the difficult problems of definition and interpretation involved in job opportunity data has already been made through the Department of Labor's experimental surveys, and experience with more extensive surveys should lead to further refinements and improvements, like those made over many years in the unemployment statistics.

Efforts to solve labor shortages cannot stop with *ex post facto* evaluation and action, however. "The time to deal with manpower shortages is before they develop," as the President said in his *1966 Manpower Report.*

An awareness of the importance of planning ahead has brought about increased activity in manpower forecasting. The projections of manpower requirements and supply developed by the Department of Labor have been extended to several hundred occupations and industries [72] from a much smaller number a few years ago. Special studies of prospective manpower needs and the increase in training rates required to meet them also have been made in the health occupations [73] and a few other important fields known to have severe recruitment problems. This research needs to be expanded and further refined, and the results must be widely applied in the planning of professional, technical, and vocational education and on-the-job training.

The development of current employment statistics by occupation is another area where further progress is needed. Such statistics are not now available in the detail essential to establish a sound factual basis for projecting manpower requirements or for dealing with many manpower problems. Current information on the numbers employed in different occupations is also required to indicate the changing supply of manpower in key occupations and as a base line for determining the significance of data on job opportunities.

Employment data are available annually for engineering, scientific, and technical occupations and a few others, based on industry surveys. And the Department of Labor has begun a program aimed at collection of more comprehensive occupational employment data on a regular basis. This program needs to be improved upon and greatly expanded, to cover all significant occupations.

Another great gap in the arsenal of manpower information relates to private industry training programs and their contributions to meeting skill requirements. The Department of Labor is developing a new survey of formal training programs in industry, which is scheduled to be launched during 1968. But this will not cover the vast and difficult area of informal training, through which most workers acquire their occupational skills (according to a limited 1962 survey, which is still the major source of information on the subject).

A Task Force on Occupational Training has been established by the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Commerce. As directed by the President in his *1967 Manpower Report*, this task force ". . . will survey training programs operated by private industry, and will recommend ways that the Federal Government can promote and assist private training programs."

While focusing on the measures needed to strengthen occupational training, the task force will also direct its attention to the gaps in information as to how workers have acquired and should acquire their skills. This country will face an enormous training task in the next several years to meet the demand for craftsmen and other highly trained workers indicated by the Department's projections of manpower requirements. A comprehensive system of reporting on occupational training would aid greatly in appraising achievements and needs and in coordinating Federal training programs with private industry's much larger training activities.

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[72] These projections will be presented in "Tomorrow's Manpower Needs—National Manpower Projections and a Guide to Their Use as a Tool in Developing State and Area Manpower Projections," to be published by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 1968.

[73] See *Health Manpower, 1966–75—A Study of Requirements and Supply* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1967), Report No. 323.

# Toward the Development of Manpower Indicators

How far have we come in this exploratory effort toward improved quantitative assessment of manpower problems and progress? In all the problem areas considered, some approach to quantification of recent gains and continuing deficiencies—to identification and measurement of the most urgent current problems—has been possible. In a few areas, fairly sophisticated indicators are at hand. But in others, all that is now available are limited and often fragmentary statistical indications—rather than indicators, in any formal sense of the term—of where we stand and the direction in which we are moving in relation to desired objectives. In some important areas, work has scarcely begun.

The development of a comprehensive set of manpower measures or indicators will depend on progress in filling the data gaps pointed out in all sections of the chapter. This is no small assignment. In measuring manpower problems, overall national estimates can be as inadequate as fragmentary data for particular groups. In every area of worker well-being, it is essential to avoid broad generalizations that can mask crucial differences, for example, between Negroes and whites, slum dwellers and suburbanites, men and women, youth and adults. And assessments of labor shortages and manpower requirements have little meaning unless focused on particular occupations, industries, and local areas.

Manpower indicators must not be limited to portraying what is happening to the work force generally or the Nation as a whole. They must be available for the kinds of population subgroups just suggested, and also for individual cities and even large slum neighborhoods. To a steadily increasing extent, manpower program decisions are being made at the level of the city and the neighborhood. And new ventures to improve the well-being of workers and their families are likely to depend heavily on the ability of local people to formulate plans of implementation. If this is to be done effectively, measures of progress toward objectives must be available for the geographic unit where responsibility for progress is lodged, and where the means are available for taking corrective steps when a reading of the indicators suggests that this is necessary.

Intelligent action at the national level also requires geographic and other detail in indicators. Resources need to be concentrated where the problems are concentrated, so that greater evenness of opportunity can be achieved among cities and regions. Urgent problems need to be spotted where and when they occur, so that they can be contained. And as already suggested, developments affecting even a major segment of society may be lost in figures for the Nation as a whole.

Progress toward a system of manpower indicators is rendered the more difficult by this need for detailed measures for population subgroups and local areas, as well as for the country generally. It is complicated even more by the wide range of problem areas that must be taken into account. But the development of a set of indicators is, nevertheless, to be sought as a long-term goal.

What is encompassed in looking ahead toward manpower indicators is the need for systematic measurement over time—for a comprehensive, continuing, and yet dynamic set of measures, which will make possible analysis of trends and changes over the years in all major manpower problem areas and also of the interrelationships among these areas and of their relationships to other economic and social developments.

## INDICATORS OF EMERGING PROBLEMS

The completion of a detailed set of descriptive indicators in all areas touched on in this chapter would be only one step—however long and still far from accomplishment—in the creation of measures to aid in the attainment of manpower objectives. Despite all the inherent difficulties and hazards of looking ahead at events to come, it should be possible, within a limited area, to pinpoint difficult problems as they emerge and even to achieve some forewarning of them from knowledge of how events affect one another. If the antecedents of a problem can be identified, this can help in anticipating the problem itself.

To some extent, this approach has already been used. From the postwar upsurge in birth rates, for example, fairly exact predictions were made of the impending rise in school enrollments and in the numbers of teachers and classrooms that would be needed. Population figures, by age group, and data on rising standards of medical care have been used to predict the growing demand for medical and nursing personnel. Rising agricultural productivity—owing to the introduction of the cottonpicking machine and the manifold other advances in farm technology—led to predictions of continued displacement of farmworkers. The consequences of their displacement in terms of increased overcrowding and poverty in city slums were also foreseen by a few analysts, although not widely recognized.

A few illustrative suggestions follow as to the kinds of innovative indexes that might, with careful analysis, give warning of impending problems or of a worsening or improvement in existing ones:

> —*People reaching 45 years of age in jobs that are disappearing.* It is known that once displaced, older workers have great difficulty becoming reemployed, especially if they are trained in an obsolescent occupation and have limited education. If the indicator shows a bunching of people in this situation, special retraining programs and other measures could be undertaken in advance to protect them against prolonged unemployment.
>
> —*The skill requirement of jobs.* If an indicator were available that measured the real skill requirements of jobs, rather than merely formal hiring standards, training programs could be planned more efficiently. Such an indicator would be particularly helpful in foreseeing the problems facing young workers, especially school dropouts, and in efforts to develop job opportunities for the disadvantaged.
>
> —*The minimum age at which employers hire.* Practically nothing is known about the minimum ages employers specify in hiring and the relation these may have to the high rates of youth unemployment. If an indicator shows that the customary minimum age is being advanced, trouble can be expected as school leavers find they are not old enough to enter employment. Special efforts to encourage modifications of employers' minimum-age specifications or, failing that, special transitional arrangements might be called for, to bridge the gap between school and work for many youth.
>
> —*Trends in the educational achievement of slum youth.* If such an indicator shows a deterioration in the educational achievement of youth going to slum schools, an increase in the employment problems of these youth can be expected. To prevent this, it might be necessary to find new avenues to remedial education and also to intensify efforts to improve the quality of slum schools.
>
> —*Satisfaction of slum residents with their jobs.* An indicator showing a sharp decrease in job satisfaction in the slums might be viewed with concern as a predictor of intensifying unrest.

The most disadvantaged groups in our society—for example, ex-prisoners and the physically and mentally handicapped—are lost sight of altogether in present economic and social statistics. And information for the smaller, also highly disadvantaged, ethnic minority groups—Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, American Indians—is extremely inadequate (as emphasized earlier in this chapter). For each of these groups, indicators should be developed showing the relative differences between them and the population generally in unemployment, labor force participation, occupations, earnings, and educational attainment. These indicators would show from year to year whether and where the gaps between these groups and the population norms are widening or narrowing and would thus help greatly to stimulate and guide program action.

The existence of opportunities for meaningful participation in activities other than paid employment is another area where possible indicators might be explored. The increase in leisure time, the lengthening of the average lifespan, and the trend toward earlier retirement all point to the importance, both for the individual and for society, of widening opportunities for service on a nonpaid basis. A recent survey of volunteer work provides some summary data on this subject.[74] But no measures are yet available of the contribution volunteers are making in meeting social needs, nor of the potentials for further service in this area, nor of the numbers of people in different life situations who might welcome such opportunities for social involvement.

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[74] "A Survey of Volunteer Work, 1965," to be published by the U.S. Department of Labor in 1968.

## RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER AREAS OF SOCIAL CONCERN

If indicators were available for all areas of social concern—not only manpower but also education, health, family stability, crime, and so forth—it should become possible to trace an interconnected series of happenings throughout the fabric of society. This kind of analysis would not only throw light on the interrelationships between different social problems but also aid in identifying critical points of intervention, where remedial action might be most effective.

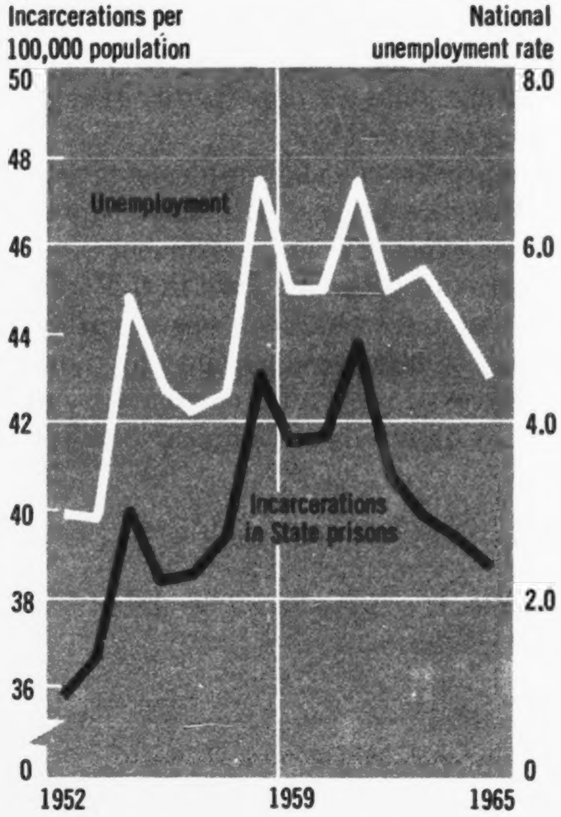
The relationship between unemployment and family stability described in the Department of Labor publication, *The Negro Family, The Case for National Action*, provides one example of the value of considering manpower and other social data together. In that study it was found that as unemployment increases, family separation rates also increase; and when unemployment recedes, so do separations. While such a statistical relationship leaves the dynamics of the situation unexplained, it gives reason for some optimism that the provision of jobs could be a major factor in enabling families to stay together.

For further illustration, the rate at which people are incarcerated in State prisons is compared with the national unemployment rate in chart 18. It can be seen that the two indicators have almost identical movements.[75]

Almost as impressive a relationship was obtained in a study comparing changes in the rate of unemployment and the suicide rate for 45- to 54-year-old males over a 30-year period.[76] With each upward or downward movement of the unemployment percentage, the suicide rate changed with remarkable similarity. Finally, an only recently reported study of the epidemiology of mental illness established a close correlation between unemployment levels in the State of New York and the rate of admissions to mental hospitals.[77]

CHART 18

**State prison incarcerations and national unemployment rates have parallel trends.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Data on incarcerations from U.S. Department of Justice.

When relationships such as these are found by placing indicators side by side, intensive investigation is warranted to uncover the nature of the relationship. For example, if the availability of jobs should turn out to be a critical factor in yearly variations in the felony rate, this would be a finding warranting wide attention.

The availability of carefully constructed indicators in various social areas, which are now being developed under the leadership of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, should aid greatly in uncovering such basic relationships.

## CONCLUSION

Despite all the informational gaps and data needs that have been pointed out, the statistics now available in this country are probably more sophisticated and also more comprehensive than those of any other nation. However, many of our present statistical series were developed because a pressing problem had overtaken the country.

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[75] Many problems exist in trying to construct a satisfactory index of crime. The one used here relates only to persons tried, found guilty, and turned over to State prisons. Many crimes are not reported; others are not solved; and still others result in confinement in penal institutions other than State prisons.

[76] Brian MacMahon, Samuel Johnson, and Thomas Pugh, "Relation of Suicide Rates to Social Conditions," *Public Health Reports*, April 1963, pp. 285–293.

[77] M. Harvey Brenner, "Economic Change and Mental Hospitalization: New York State, 1910–1960," *Social Psychiatry*, December 1967, pp. 180–188.

The measurement of manpower trends must not only keep pace with the development of problems; it should precede them, so that they can be anticipated and prepared for. Advances in the social sciences and statistics provide, at least potentially, the knowledge and technical capacity required for this leadtime. And the opportunity thus presented should not be passed by.

The improvements and supplementation of manpower statistics suggested in this chapter form a tentative agenda for the government agencies and private organizations involved in this field of fact-finding and research. Decisions on priorities for action will be influenced not only by judgments as to the degree of need for a particular type of data but also by questions of technical feasibility, relative costs, and budgetary resources. The Department of Labor, working through internal and external research committees, will take the lead in determining priorities among these informational needs, in formulating plans to meet them, and in actually developing new and improved manpower indicators. It is hoped that, at the same time, private researchers and research organizations will make large contributions in many areas.

Progress toward the development of manpower indicators will require not merely data gathering but also extensive research on conceptual and technical problems and on the interpretation and refinement of the indicators developed. To test the validity and utility of existing measures, to evolve more effective ones, and to identify areas where new measures are needed will be continuing research challenges if a system of manpower indicators is to become a fruitful reality.

# 3

# BARRIERS
TO EMPLOYMENT
OF THE DISADVANTAGED

# BARRIERS TO EMPLOYMENT OF THE DISADVANTAGED

The disadvantaged workers still jobless or underemployed in this period of economic prosperity—who, in the President's words, are ". . . blocked from productive employment by barriers rooted in poverty: lack of health, lack of education, lack of training, lack of motivation"[1]—are now the chief concern of manpower policy. If programs are to be shaped effectively to these workers' specific needs, deeper understanding of their problems and the obstacles to their employment is essential.

This chapter therefore explores the sociological, cultural, psychological, and economic barriers to employment of the disadvantaged in big city slums.[2] The introductory section sketches the major statistical dimensions of joblessness and underemployment in urban poverty areas. The chapter is concerned in the main, however, not with measurement and description of these problems but with exploration of their deep-rooted personal and environmental causes.

In this analysis, the barriers to employment are divided into those stemming from social-psychological characteristics and those access and institutional barriers which bar slum residents from otherwise available jobs. Since the special economic world that has developed in slum areas greatly influences the residents' attitudes toward regular jobs, this "irregular economy" is analyzed briefly. And there is an illustrative discussion of one important group of the poor and underemployed—the mothers receiving assistance under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program. The emphasis in this discussion is on the complex interrelationships between employment and welfare for these women, and the possible implications of the findings for the new Work Incentive Program aimed at equipping more AFDC mothers for regular jobs.

In conclusion, some important objectives in job creation and other manpower policies that bear directly on the barriers to employment of the disadvantaged are reviewed. Suggestions are also made as to the strategies and program improvements that would strengthen present efforts to overcome these barriers and enable the hard-core unemployed and marginal workers to obtain and hold steady, decently paid jobs.

## The Sub-Employed

The present measures of unemployment—limited, broadly, to persons who have no work at all and are actively seeking a job—are particularly inadequate for assessing the economic situation of disadvantaged workers in urban slums, and also rural areas. A broader, more useful concept for analysis of the problems of these groups—that of sub-employment—was introduced in 1967 and developed further in the preceding chapter.

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[1] The President's message on Manpower, January 23, 1968, p. 2.

[2] For a discussion of the equally urgent problems of the rural poor, see the chapter on Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development; also *The People Left Behind* (Washington: President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, September 1967).

The concept of sub-employment broadens the traditional notions of attachment to the labor force and availability for work, and it introduces the issue of the quality of employment as represented by the level of wages. This is especially important for the development of manpower policy in poverty areas. The employed poor—with earnings below the poverty line even for full-time work—now represent a larger problem, at least in terms of numbers, than the unemployed. Yet they are a group which has so far received comparatively little attention.

Separate consideration of the different kinds of people included among the sub-employed is also essential. The sub-employed are a diverse group, with varied problems requiring different remedial approaches. No one policy will deal effectively with the employment problems of all the sub-employed, nor with all aspects of their problems.

Some of the sub-employed are unable to get or keep a job because of social-psychological characteristics or low motivation. But such difficulties must not be considered as characteristic of all the sub-employed. Nor can social-psychological barriers to employment be analyzed apart from the context of available opportunities.

Two obvious but crucial questions are: What are the reasons for the continuing high sub-employment among Negroes and other minority groups in large cities? What can be done to decrease it further? Efforts to answer these questions are seriously hampered by the inadequacy of present information. Some leads can be obtained, however, by pulling together the scattered and fragmentary evidence at hand. This section gives some highlights of the available data on the numbers and characteristics of the sub-employed in urban areas, as a background for considering the barriers to their employment.

## UNEMPLOYMENT AND SUB-EMPLOYMENT IN POVERTY AREAS

While unemployment is only a partial index of the deprivation of slumdwellers, it is concentrated among the same groups that suffer from low earnings and other forms of sub-employment. The differences in unemployment rates between people in and outside poverty areas illustrate the gap in economic conditions between slum residents and the American people as a whole.

Half a million persons were unemployed in the poverty areas of large Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's) in March 1966, representing 7.5 percent of the poverty area work force. This unemployment rate was nearly double the national average rate at that time (4.0 percent).[3] One out of every 4 teenage workers (14 to 19 years old) in the poverty areas, and nearly 1 out of 10 nonwhites of all ages, were unemployed. Among nonwhite teenagers, nearly a third of the boys and nearly half of the girls were jobless. Furthermore, the geographic concentration of nonwhite unemployment was great; about 60 percent of the jobless nonwhites in the SMSA's were living in these poverty areas, four times the proportion for jobless white workers.

Startling as these figures are, they do not adequately represent the situation in some of the poorest city slums. The unemployment rate was 10 percent or more in the slum areas of 10 of the 13 cities for which information was obtained by the Department of Labor and cooperating State agencies in November 1966 (in three cities from independent studies).[4] In two of these city slums, the unemployment rate was above 15 percent.

Besides having high rates of unemployment, the workers in poverty areas were much more likely than others to be out of work for long periods (according to the March 1966 data). Above-average proportions of the men of normal working age were neither employed nor looking for work; many were unable to look for work because of poor health, and some had apparently been discouraged by their inability to find a job. In addition, many slum residents had been able to find only part-time work, and the jobs they had were very often unskilled and low paying.

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[3] The poverty area classification system used here was developed within the Bureau of the Census for the Office of Economic Opportunity. A total of 193 neighborhoods in 100 (of the 101) Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's), with a 1960 population of 250,000 or more were designated as "poverty areas" on the basis of an index of census tracts (reflecting 1960 income, education, skills, housing, and proportion of broken homes), contiguity of tracts, and the effects of urban renewal. The 193 poverty areas included about 22 percent of the census tracts in the SMSA's. For a detailed discussion of the poverty area definition, see Current Population Reports, Series P–23, No. 19, August 24, 1966; and *1960 Census of Population*, Supplementary Reports, PC(S1)–54, November 13, 1967.

For a full discussion of the poverty area findings of March 1966, see James R. Wetzel and Susan S. Holland, "Poverty Areas of Our Major Cities," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1966, pp. 1105–1110, reprinted as Special Labor Force Report No. 75.

[4] For a discussion of these surveys and their findings, see *1967 Manpower Report*, pp. 74–75.

The evidence is thus overwhelming that any meaningful count of the disadvantaged—the sub-employed—in poverty areas of the country's large metropolitan centers would greatly exceed the half million found to be unemployed there in March 1966. A reasonable, and probably minimal, estimate of sub-employment (as defined in the preceding chapter) in these poverty areas would be 1.5 million.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF SLUM RESIDENTS

The residents of poverty areas include above-average proportions of older people; of widowed, divorced, and separated persons; of households headed by women; and of members of ethnic minority groups.

Nevertheless, white people outnumber nonwhites by 3 to 2 in urban poverty areas as a whole, according to the March 1966 survey. It is only in the very worst slums that nonwhites predominate in total numbers.[5] Because of their extremely high rate of unemployment, however, nonwhites represent a majority of all the poverty area unemployed.

Is poverty area unemployment primarily a youth problem, a conclusion reached by many observers? As shown by the figures already cited, the proportion of poverty area youth unemployed—and presumably alienated in many cases—is shockingly high. On the other hand, many men in the prime working ages are also jobless in these areas. And since there are not nearly as many teenagers as adult men, unemployed youth constitute a relatively small proportion of all unemployed males in poverty areas, as in the country generally.

A recent study in Newark, N.J., confirms the finding that youth unemployment is not the numerically dominant type in poverty areas. The unemployment rate for Negro males 16 to 19 years of age in these slum areas was 33 percent, and for those aged 20 to 24 it was 13 percent. The group aged 25 and over had a lower unemployment rate (8 percent) but represented 60 percent of all unemployed Negro men.[6] Clearly, manpower policy must be as much concerned with the employment needs of adult men in the ghettos as with those of jobless youth.

Public policy must also recognize the variations in social characteristics among slum residents. While detailed data on the sub-employed are not available, information on the general characteristics of the poverty area population strongly suggests the extent of variability. Accounts of social pathology in the slums frequently tend to obscure these important differences.

Although the proportion of families headed by women is higher in poverty areas than elsewhere, nearly two-thirds of the families in such areas in 1966 were headed by men. Contrary to a widely held notion, the proportion of large families was no higher there than in the country generally; the proportion of families with six or more members was about 15 percent in each case. Furthermore, although relatively more of the employed workers in poverty areas than of the country's work force as a whole were in service and laboring jobs, the proportion in such jobs was only 1 out of 3; the number in somewhat higher level occupations was twice as large.

There is, thus, some strength and stability in poverty areas, as well as considerable social pathology and disorganization. Neither the positive nor the negative aspects of the situation should be overlooked in policy development.

The variations from one ghetto area to another can also be considerable. A study of unemployed, out-of-school Negro youth in the Harlem and the Bedford-Stuyvesant areas of New York City, for example, showed sizable differences in outlook. Asked whether they expected to have the income they would need to support a family with two children within the next 5 to 10 years, 44 percent of Harlem youth, as contrasted with only 28 percent of those in Bedford-Stuyvesant, showed high expectations. The expectations of the youth in Harlem approached, though they did not quite equal, those of middle-class high school students.[7]

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[5] *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 76.

[6] Jack Chernick, Bernard P. Indik, and George Sternlieb, *Newark-New Jersey: Population and Labor Force, Spring 1967* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers—The State University, December 1967), p. 12.

[7] *Study of the Meaning, Experience, and Effects of the Neighborhood Youth Corps on Negro Youth Who are Seeking Work*, pt. I (New York: New York University, Center for the Study of Unemployed Youth, January 1967), pp. XIII and XIV, and pp. 149–150.

Bedford-Stuyvesant youth had been born in New York City or had come from the urban—instead of the rural—South. Consequently, the Harlem young people tended to be in better economic circumstances, as shown by their job histories and their families' earnings situation.

Probably the most important generalization that can be made about ghettos and poverty areas is their heterogeneity. No single program can reach all groups of slumdwellers.

## Barriers to Employment

The factors which produce sub-employment in big city poverty areas are as diverse as the characteristics of the people affected. They are also interrelated, mutually reinforcing, and difficult to disentangle. Social-psychological factors, lack of education and training, ill health, discrimination, and other employer practices with respect to selection of employees, and distance from available jobs are among the many barriers which contribute to joblessness, underemployment, and low earnings.

The following sections discuss three kinds of barriers to employment of the disadvantaged—social-psychological, access, and institutional.[8]

### SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL BARRIERS

One interpretation of the high rates of joblessness and low earnings in city slums, increasingly cited as the general level of unemployment drops, stresses the presumed distinctive characteristics of the big city sub-employed—that they are less motivated to work, lack perseverance in working, and are generally alienated from the world of work. Although not fully supported, this explanation does have some validity. Reports by employers about men from poverty areas who were placed on jobs and then quit them seem to indicate that the work attitudes and motivation of the sub-employed of big cities are major barriers to their regular employment. Just how important these social-psychological factors are in the total complex of factors affecting the employment of disadvantaged workers is not certain, however. And the strategies that would be most effective in dealing with such factors are neither obvious nor free from controversy.

The social-psychological factors encompassed in explanations of the job behavior of low-income Negroes and others who have difficulty in getting and keeping jobs include attitudes, aspirations, motivation (especially achievement motivation), ability or willingness to defer gratification, and self-image. Most frequently, the individual's early family experiences are used to explain the development of this complex of attitudes and motivations. The basic assumption is that a person's perception of himself, his attitudes towards work, his motivation, and his ability to postpone gratifications affect his chances of getting and keeping a job.

The important considerations from the perspective of this analysis are the distribution, relevance, and causality of the various possible factors. Distribution denotes the extent to which a given factor or attribute, considered an important element in a positive orientation toward work, is found among the fully employed and not among the sub-employed. Relevance refers to the relationship between the particular factor and work-connected behavior—that is, how important the factor really is in work behavior. Causality concerns the genesis of the attribute: Is it a reaction to a particular set of job-related events, or does it have more deep-seated roots?

#### Distribution

Assuming that a complex of attitudes, aspirations, motivations, and identity orientation affects work behavior, does this lead, among the sub-employed, to crippling or otherwise inadequate outlooks toward work? Few studies on this general subject present data pertaining to the sub-employed as such; much more commonly they contrast Negroes with whites, or persons of lower socioeconomic status (as measured by income, occupation, education, or some combination of the three) with those of higher position. Before examining some findings of these studies, however, it is essential to note that neither the poor, nor the nonpoor, nor Negroes, nor whites are homogenous. Furthermore, there is overlap in characteristics among groups. Some poor rank higher in social-psychological characteristics, no matter what the indicator, than some nonpoor. Consequently, public policy must be flexible and allow a variety of approaches if the sub-employed are to be aided effectively.

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[8] For a more extended review of the social science literature in which this classification is developed, see Martin Rein, "Social Science and the Elimination of Poverty," *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, May 1967, pp. 146–163.

Although many studies show that relatively more people of high than of low socioeconomic status have positive work attitudes, this is far from a uniform finding. For example, a study of Job Corps enrollees concluded that the aspirations of the youth participating in this program did not differ substantially from those of youth in better circumstances.[9]

The aspiration data are complex. There is evidence, for example, that Negro parents often have very high educational aspirations for their children. These aspirations may be unrealistically high, as is often charged. But this is very different from the contention, also frequently made, that it is low aspirations which produce poor results in getting and keeping a job.

It has been suggested that the need to achieve is relatively low among persons at the poverty level, partly because early training in self-reliance may be less prevalent in poor families than in those in higher socioeconomic groups. Furthermore, several studies indicate that low-status Negroes have less need for achievement than low-status whites.[10] But there is conflicting evidence as well. For example, one sample of low-income Negro residents of a public housing project revealed that more than two-thirds agreed with the statement that "the most important qualities of a real man are determination and driving ambition."[11]

Aspiration is also relative to the expectation that one can achieve what one aspires to. This is shown by a study of Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees (referred to previously). Only one-third of the unemployed Negro youth thought their chances of having enough income to support a family within 5 to 10 years were very good. When male freshmen and sophomores at a Catholic and a Negro university were asked the same question, the proportion reporting such expectations was twice as large (approximately 2 out of every 3). And more than one-half of a sample of Catholic high school students responded that their chances of being able to support a family within the indicated period were "very good."[12]

The findings of studies on deferred and delayed gratification also warrant careful attention. A number of studies investigating the ability to postpone gratification in order to gain a larger reward in the future have failed to indicate any uniform or striking differences between respondents in lower socioeconomic groups and those in higher positions.[13]

### Relevance

Social-psychological variables do not always have a clear-cut relationship to work behavior. The need to achieve has been offered as an important causal explanation of work behavior—workers who have a low need to achieve perform less satisfactorily. But in one study of unemployed males, a significant relationship between achievement motivation and job-finding success was not established. When Negroes and young workers (21 years old and under) were eliminated from the analysis, a stronger relationship was evident. Nevertheless, these findings suggest that, for certain groups at least, there is question about the importance of the need-achievement variable.[14]

Studies on a national scale also raise questions about the importance of achievement motivation. A comparative analysis of social mobility, for example, indicates that workers in France, the Netherlands, and Germany, characterized as having relatively low need-achievement,[15] do not differ markedly in mobility from workers in the United States and Britain, where need-achievement levels are higher.

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[9] Sar A. Levitan, "Job Corps," *Examination of the War on Poverty* (Washington: 90th Cong., 1st sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Subcommittee on Employment, Manpower, and Poverty, August 1967), Staff and Consultants Reports, vol. 1, p. 26.

[10] Thomas F. Pettigrew, "Negro American Personality: Why Isn't More Known?" *Journal of Social Issues,* April 1964, p. 13.

[11] William Yancy, "Some Adaptations to Underemployment," paper prepared for the Southern Sociological Meeting in Atlanta, Ga., April 11–13, 1968.

[12] *Study of the Meaning, Experience, and Effects of the Neighborhood Youth Corps on Negro Youth Who are Seeking Work,* pp. 149–150.

[13] S. M. Miller, Frank Riessman, and Arthur A. Seagull, "Poverty and Self-Indulgence: A Critique of the Non-Deferred Gratification Pattern," in *Poverty in America,* eds. Louis A. Ferman, Joyce L. Kornbluh, and Alan Haber (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1965), pp. 285–302.

[14] Harold L. Sheppard and A. Harvey Belitsky, *The Job Hunt: Jobseeking Behavior of Unemployed Workers in a Local Economy* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1966), pp. 114 ff.

Obviously, attitudes and values tend to intermingle with situational factors of opportunity and chance.

### Causality

Attitudes and motivations can lead people to shun particular kinds of jobs or to handle them poorly. This is beyond question. But the chain of causality may move in the other direction also—unsatisfactory job experiences may lead to negative attitudes and motivations. Difficulty in getting a job, irregularity of employment, and inadequacy of wages may all contribute to low aspirations and expectations and inability to persevere on a job. Thus, ". . . the Negro youth starts out with determination to do a good job, but experience with a number of menial, low-paying, and insecure jobs quickly produces an erosion of his commitment to work" [16]

Moreover, failure to develop a work identity may lead to the development of an identity which competes with employment. The youth who lacks a work identity, as well as an identity as a husband and father, "must seek in other ways to construct a self which provides some measure of gratification of needs and earns some measure of recognition of one's self as a social being." The development of a "dramatic self" through adherence to the "expressive life style" provides an alternative identity.[17] If the youth is successful in establishing such an identity, it will provide him with the security, social participation, and feeling of status that he has failed to achieve through the worker-provider role. In dropping out of family life, he drops into a male-centered social world that provides a "strategy for survival," even though not centered about work.

Both early life experiences and those as a worker can contribute to the development of a life style which competes with an effective work identity. But once again, the chain of causality is not clear. The attitudes engendered by the family in early life can be reinforced, overturned, or modified as a result of later experiences.

In some respects, the behavior of the poor is less a reflection of basic values than an effort to cope with current situations. The mechanisms used for this purpose (such as dropping out of regular work and engaging instead in illicit activities) may have many negative consequences. But more important from the viewpoint of social policy is the question of whether these adjustive reactions, or "survival techniques," are responses to particular experiences and situations or the result of basic values learned at an early age and little affected by outside influences thereafter. Obviously, if later experiences, rather than early family life, have the more potent influence on work attitudes, changing these experiences may be a most important route to influencing workers' development.

This brief examination of a large and complicated body of literature suggests the following tentative conclusions:

> —Since the disadvantaged are not homogeneous, what may be characteristic of the most troubled individuals in this category may not be generally applicable to the disadvantaged.
>
> —The dividing line between employability and the lack of it is not fixed. In part, it reflects employers' judgments about individuals, made in the context of the general labor supply-and-demand situation. These relative judgments apply to the work attitudes and motivation of individuals as well as their levels of education and skill.
>
> —The extent to which these difficulties are the major factors in sub-employment is unclear. Still lacking is an adequate understanding of the connections between attitudes and work patterns. Attitudes are certainly significant, but it is not yet possible to say what the most relevant attitudes are, nor precisely how they influence actions.

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[15] David C. McClelland, *The Achieving Society* (Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1961), pp. 90 ff.; and Thomas Fox and S. M. Miller, "Intra-Country Variations: Occupational Stratification and Mobility," and Seymour Martin Lipset and Hans L. Detterberg, "A Theory of Social Mobility" in Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset, *Class, Status, and Power* (revised ed.; New York: The Free Press, 1967).

[16] *Study of the Meaning, Experience, and Effects of the Neighborhood Youth Corps on Negro Youth Who are Seeking Work*, p. 182.

[17] Lee Rainwater, "Work and Identity in the Lower Class," in *Planning for a Nation of Cities*, ed. Sam Bass Warner, Jr. (Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, 1966), pp. 105–123, and "The Lessons of Pruitt-Igoe," *The Public Interest*, Summer 1967, pp. 116–126.

The policy implications of the social-psychological factors are uncertain also. Two possible approaches are suggested. One emphasizes the necessity of direct efforts to modify the attitudes of the disadvantaged before introducing them to job situations. The other would bring the sub-employed into the job situation and then add the activities and services that may be needed to influence their attitudes and their ability to handle the demands of work.

The first approach is based on the principle of preparation—preparing people in advance for a change in environment. The latter approach seeks to provide supports for them after they have entered a different environment. The shift from preparation to support is an important change in the conception of the role of social services.

In the early 1960's, the emphasis was largely upon the first approach—through programs which aimed at motivating workers, especially the young, and which stressed prevocational activities and training in attitudes and social skills. More recently, however, emphasis has shifted to getting workers into jobs—based on the theory that "real-life" work situations are those most likely to affect attitudes. The aim is to provide a setting in which a disadvantaged individual can perform adequately without a fully developed work identity and can then move in the direction of strengthening that identity. In some programs, traditional guidance and casework have been superseded by the development of racial pride and identity as a method of improving the capacity to take and hold a job.[18]

This approach also implies the necessity for selective job development aimed at the particular groups to be served—which is one of the major new emphases in manpower programs. The cooperation of private industry is being sought in efforts to employ the disadvantaged in regular jobs. But protected job situations may be needed for a relatively small residual group (as further discussed later in this chapter).

Since low-income "families differ in background, in resources and skills, and in their ability to cope with the vicissitudes of a marginal existence," [19] no one program will succeed with all. Nor should it be assumed that the same social-psychological factors are equally significant in every case.

## ACCESS AND INSTITUTIONAL BARRIERS

The obstacles that stand between disadvantaged workers and jobs are partly personal, partly environmental and institutional. To consider the personal factors first, a great many ghetto residents—including Puerto Ricans and Mexican Americans as well as Negroes—do not have the basic education and command of standard English generally required for employment. Many more lack the work skills essential for the available jobs. Health problems and lack of adequate medical care are also pervasive difficulties. Police and bad debt records are further barriers to employment for significant numbers.

Besides these personal factors (discussed in last year's *Manpower Report*),[20] many sub-employed have an added difficulty: they do not look like "typical" employed workers. Differences in dress, hairstyle, and grooming make them less likely to be employed. "The style is the man" is an old saying which has some force, but its aptness may be overemphasized in judging fitness for work.

Undoubtedly, some sub-employed mirror in their personal appearance and behavior the kinds of difficulties they might have on the job—untidiness, inattention to detail, unreliability. For some, the usual employment situation may not be appropriate. But employers should realize that an unsatisfactory personal appearance is not indicative in all cases of inability to handle the usual work situation. An inadequate awareness of what jobs demand in terms of personal bearing may be involved. This lack of awareness can be overcome in many cases when the individuals' difficulties do not have deep psychological roots. In some cases, graded work experiences can help individuals adapt over time to job demands. The "strangeness" of some sub-employed should certainly not be regarded as typical of all of them. Nor should even those whose appearance is most disturbing to employers be rejected without exploration of their ability to adapt to work situations, given special help.

An additional obstacle to employment is the lack of adequate child-care facilities. This affects a significant number of women who want and need work (as discussed in the section on The AFDC Mother later in this chapter, and also in the *1967 Manpower Report*).[21]

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[18] See, for example, the discussion of the Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) Program and Project PRIDE in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[19] Helen Icken Safa, *An Analysis of Upward Mobility in Low Income Families; A Comparison of Family and Community Life Among American Negro and Puerto Rican Poor* (Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University, Youth Development Center, 1967), p. 100.

[20] See *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 78 ff. In addition, the relation of lack of education to the problems of ethnic minority groups is discussed in the section on Equality of Opportunity in the preceding chapter of the present report.

The barriers discussed in this section are those relating to the job search, travel to jobs, institutional factors affecting hiring and promotion, and the current job structure.

### The Job Search

Many disadvantaged persons, willing to work and looking for jobs, do not know how to go about the job search effectively. The slum resident is, to a large extent, confined to his own neighborhood. And jobs in outlying areas, or even in the central city of which the neighborhood is a part, are likely to be beyond his reach. Inadequate transportation, changes in occupational patterns, or shifts of industry from central cities to surrounding suburbs inhibit his search.

The disadvantaged youth or adult, then, starts on an active job hunt beset by problems. For the most part, the job does not come to him, although some efforts at recruiting within areas of concentrated poverty have been made in the last few years. The slum resident must search out available openings, and he may do this in a number of ways—through the nearest placement services; through newspaper ads; through direct application to plants, stores, or other possible locations of job openings; or through friends or relatives.

Learning about available jobs from friends and relatives is central to the job search, both in and outside poverty areas. But in the slums, this source of information is restricted by the limited connections which exist with the outside job world and also within the community. What little job information slum residents can get from friends and relatives usually pertains only to low-level occupations.

For people in poverty areas, social segregation and personal isolation act as barriers. Negro residential segregation has been increasing steadily over the past decade in cities throughout the United States, despite overall improvements in the socioeconomic status of Negroes.[22] This segregation has the effect of confining networks of informal communication to within the ethnic communities. Yet the lower the socioeconomic status of the community, the weaker the intracommunity network is likely to be, except where kin-group association is strong. Furthermore, unemployment contributes to social isolation; this is indicated by research conducted during the depression of the 1930's, as well as by more recent studies.[23]

Thus, in lower income communities, the long-term unemployed person often suffers the double burden of relative isolation within his own community, as well as segregation from the larger world of the metropolis. In some situations, such as that of the Pruitt-Igoe public housing project in St. Louis, most forms of interpersonal relationships are regarded with mistrust.[24]

The frequency with which informal information is relied upon in looking for jobs is made clear by a number of studies. A survey of workers affected by plant shutdowns in five communities revealed that from 31 to 53 percent of those who had been successful in finding new jobs had relied on informal information. In a sample of young labor force entrants, as many as 60 percent reported reliance upon friends or relatives.[25] Workers covered by these studies made relatively little use of the State Employment Service.

A nationwide survey of the 1962 graduates of vocational high schools showed the Negro youth to be more dependent than the whites upon informal sources of assistance in their job search. Half of all Negro students, as contrasted with about one-third of the white students, depended upon friends or relatives to assist them in finding jobs. The Negroes received less help from the schools' job placement facilities than the white students. Though they relied more than whites on the State Employment Service, the importance of this service to them as a source of job referrals was limited, compared with their dependence on friends and relatives.[26]

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[21] See *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 81.

[22] Karl E. and Alma F. Taeuber, "The Negro as an Immigrant Group," *American Journal of Sociology*, January 1964, p. 378. For their nationwide study, see *Negroes in Cities* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965).

[23] See Edward Wright Bakke, *Citizens Without Work* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1940), p. 7; Mirra Komarovsky, *The Unemployed Man and His Family* (Morningside Heights, N.Y.: Institute of Social Research, 1940), p. 128; H. W. Singer, *Unemployment and the Unemployed* (London: P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1940), p. 100; and H. Pope, "Economic Deprivation and Social Participation," *Social Problems*, Winter 1964, p. 291.

[24] Lee Rainwater, "Fear and the House-as-Haven in the Lower Class," in *Urban Renewal; People, Politics, and Planning*, ed. Jewell Bellush and Murray Hausknecht (New York: Doubeday and Co., 1967).

[25] Richard C. Wilcock and Walter H. Franke, *Unwanted Workers* (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1963), and Larry D. Singell, "Some Private and Social Aspects of the Labor Mobility of Young Workers," *Quarterly Review of Economics and Business*, Spring 1966, p. 21.

Since dependence upon these informal sources of job information is so widespread, the accelerated movement of Negroes into technical and professional work, and into other white-collar and skilled manual jobs, should open up a new source of job information. The individuals entering such jobs should be channels of information to sub-employed friends and family members, not only about the job market in general but also about specific job openings.

The problem of bringing sub-employed slum residents within reach of information which would contribute to job-finding success is much larger than this, however. One approach to dissolving the communications barrier in the segregated ghetto lies in aiding the sub-employed to move to other neighborhoods. There are compelling reasons for this approach. But even if open housing policies come rapidly closer to meeting their objectives in this direction, people who move may continue to lack needed job information. Individuals and families whose social status or racial characteristics differ greatly from the majority in their neighborhood tend to remain isolated. Consequently, the need for increased efforts to get adequate job information to disadvantaged members of minority groups may extend to those in open housing.

Another approach is to improve the lines of communication to slum residents. One technique for doing this is to use workers from the poverty area to provide job information through personal contacts. In addition, community meeting places, such as churches and pool halls, may be used as information centers. Formal lines of communication can also be established through radio and television, which are more likely to reach lower income people than are newspapers and other written materials. And when placement services are brought into the slum areas, as has been done in the recent past, considerable improvement in job placements has occurred. The effectiveness of these techniques is limited, however, by the number of suitable jobs available, and the lack of inexpensive transportation to outlying areas may be a major obstacle.

A third approach is to bring jobs into ghetto areas. The visibility of new plants or business offices heightens the community's knowledge of available opportunities. In addition, it facilitates direct application to the company itself. The recent opening of a new tent factory in the Watts district of Los Angeles, for example, has demonstrated how effective this approach can be in informing workers about opportunities, even though only 300 of the 5,500 applicants for jobs at the plant could be hired.[27] Information about job availability must not, of course, be equated with employment, especially when jobs are in limited supply.

### Transportation

Metropolitan areas, of which slums and poverty areas are a part, are generally regarded as integrated job markets. But this generalization obscures the problems of specialized job markets and of the relationship between the location of a worker's home and the likelihood that he will be unemployed.

The isolation of slum residents, both youth and adults, from the larger urban area inhibits their participation in the broader job market, thus contributing to the problem of sub-employment. But there is another link between unemployment and slum residence, through the existence of a local and specialized juvenile job market, which warrants special attention. The situation has been described as follows:

> The teenage children of poor families desperately need after-school jobs; this work may . . . be a prerequisite to their remaining in school. But the demand for their services, for such things as baby-sitting, grass-cutting, snow-shoveling, lies largely in the middle- and upper-income neighborhoods . . . in the large urban area the supply of young labor may be many miles removed from the demand for it. In short, we . . . do not have an effective market for juvenile labor. . . . Slum children without part-time work may drop out of school, virtually ensuring a lifetime of low-grade employment at best and perhaps chronic unemployment.[28]

The lack of connections between young people who need part-time jobs and their potential employers is among the hidden social costs of the slum. It is one which the in-school program of the Neighborhood Youth Corps is specifically designed to offset—by generating within the ghetto opportunities for part-time employment of school youth. The alternative approach would be to bridge the gap between residence and place of employment through transportation strategies.

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[26] Max V. Eniger, *The Process and Product of T & I High School Level Vocational Education in the United States* (Pittsburgh: American Institutes for Research, September 1965), ch. 5, p. 41.

[27] *New York Times*, December 24, 1967, sec. A, p. 34.

[28] Wilbur R. Thompson, *A Preface to Urban Economics* (Washington: Resources for the Future, Inc., 1965), p. 373.

A similar gap separates adults in the slums from the areas of growing employment opportunity in their city's outskirts. Business and jobs are increasingly moving to the suburbs.[29] While the suburbanite commutes to the city for his work, residents of central city slums seldom commute to jobs in the new and expanding plants in the outer suburban ring.

Here again, three solutions to the problem are possible—to bring jobs to the slums, to help slum residents move to the suburbs, or to accept a spatial separation between work and residence for many of these people and link the two by transportation. Each of the three solutions has both advantages and disadvantages. Bringing jobs to the ghetto will reinforce and solidify its elements of strength. Bringing slum residents to suburbia will weaken the ghetto and, if accompanied by open housing policies, will promote economic and racial integration. Arranging for people to commute to jobs from present slum areas will require coordination of job development and transportation programs, if sub-employment problems are not to be reduced at the cost of intensifying urban traffic crises.

As barriers to employment are identified and efforts are made to reduce them, it must not be assumed that each step in this direction will by itself lead to increased employment and higher income. For example, improvements in transportation aimed at enlarging employment opportunities for residents of poverty areas may not be effective in every case. Multiple strategies, rather than dependence upon a single one, will be necessary.

### Institutional Barriers

Among the institutional factors which impede employment of slum residents—most of whom are members of ethnic minority groups and many of whom are old—discrimination is probably the most important. Discrimination not only in hiring but in access to promotion ladders dominates the life of many of the sub-employed (as discussed earlier in this report).[30]

The recruiting and hiring of workers is a selection process—although some critics have asserted that it is basically an exclusion process, which keeps out workers who do not fit personnel officers' conception of the model employee their company should have. Job applicants undergo a process of testing, interviewing, and credential scrutiny which operates to bar many of the sub-employed who might perform usefully on jobs.

Two types of errors are possible in the selection process—first, the rejection of persons who could handle satisfactorily the job to be filled and, second, the hiring of persons unable to perform the tasks involved at a satisfactory level. Much current hiring practice is concerned with preventing the second kind of error—a logical emphasis where the focus of concern is on the firm and its profits. But from a broader economic and social viewpoint, the first kind of error has become increasingly important, since it is one of the factors restricting job opportunities for the sub-employed.

The requirement of a high school diploma for many relatively low-skilled jobs is a particular obstacle to employment of disadvantaged workers—including large numbers of youth who are school dropouts. Employers argue that, in selecting employees, they must consider their potentiality for advancement to positions where the work demands a high school education, even if this is not necessary for the tasks involved in the entry jobs. But in view of the great need for enlarged opportunities for workers with limited education, this hiring policy should be reconsidered wherever possible.

The contention that a high school diploma has little relevance for many jobs is supported by several strands of evidence. For example, in a number of Western European countries—including France, Switzerland, Sweden, West Germany, and the Netherlands—workers from Southern Europe and Africa have done much useful factory work. Many of these foreign workers not only had less education than the sub-employed of the United States but could not speak the local language.

In this country, according to a recent study, few firms have ever systematically evaluated the performance of employees with different levels of education. Some data are available, however, on employees in private industry and government agencies, which compare the performance of workers at the same occupational level but with different amounts of education.[31] The indicators of performance used were of several types: Occasionally a direct productivity measure was utilized, but more often an indirect indicator such as absenteeism, employee turnover, or the rate of promotion was used. As might be expected, the results demonstrate that education is no guarantee of good performance. But more significantly, the opposite is suggested by some data. Thus, in many specific occupations, in a variety of industries and firms, the lower educated may do as well as, and often better than, workers with more formal training.

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[29] For discussion of this trend in the location of employment and the problems it creates for central city residents, see the chapter on Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development.

[30] See section on Equality of Opportunity in the preceding chapter.

This information is by no means as definitive and comprehensive as would be desirable, since the occupations were not systematically sampled. But the clear implication is that the prevalent, mechanical requirement of a high school diploma or other certificate of education eligibility for a wide range of jobs may result in barring potentially useful workers.[32]

Many employers also use various kinds of paper-and-pencil tests to screen prospective employees. The use of objective tests in lieu of subjective judgment has the potential to work in favor of members of minority groups. However, all too often these tests are used without any evidence that they are related to performance on the job, and the same standard of test performance is applied to applicants for jobs of differing levels of skill within the same plant. The use of tests under these circumstances may result in excluding workers with low levels of education or limited command of English from jobs they could handle. Extensive efforts have been made, however, by the Department of Labor and other organizations to develop intelligence and aptitude tests which are free of cultural bias. It is important that these should continue, and also that great care should be used in the selection, administration, and interpretation of tests, in order to prevent unwarranted rejection of disadvantaged workers, especially those from ethnic minority groups.

### The Job Structure

So far, the discussion has been restricted to the barriers limiting opportunities for the sub-employed in existing jobs. But another question may be posed: Should the existing structure of jobs be regarded as given, or is it possible and desirable to change the context of some jobs so as to open more opportunities for the sub-employed?

The present division of tasks and responsibilities among occupations reflects both deliberate, rational allocation of tasks and more haphazard factors. The structure of jobs and occupations has been much influenced by tradition, interest groups, and accident, as well as by careful analysis of who could best perform a particular task and under what conditions.

No single pattern of division of labor by any means represents the only way the tasks could be divided. During World War II, for example, a considerable amount of job dilution occurred; people with less training than was formerly required did a great deal of essential work. And in more recent years, the distribution of tasks in the medical field has been shifting towards service workers (e.g., nurse aides) from middle-level professionals (e.g., nurses), who in turn have taken over some tasks from top professionals (physicians).

Many job openings in professional, technical, and skilled occupations are unfilled because of a lack of trained manpower. This may be due in part to demographic influences (i.e., the low birthrates of the 1930's), but it also reflects hiring requirements. Each occupation seeks the "best" people, although by definition the "best" can be only a few. Yet this general search for the best could build a permanent insufficiency of manpower able to meet hiring specifications.

The scarcity of qualified workers for many present jobs suggests that it may be desirable to reallocate tasks so that the best are not always necessary, and to recognize the likelihood that workers judged less than the best can do useful work. The development of more subprofessional jobs in health and related fields is a trend in this direction, but comparable developments have not occurred on a wide scale in other types of employment.

Opportunities for the sub-employed would be increased immediately by the opening of more unskilled jobs. But the number of unskilled jobs has not been growing, and there is little if any evidence of a "filtering down" to make jobs formerly the preserve of the more skilled workers available to the less skilled. Progress in this direction has been impeded partly by the frequent mingling of unskilled and skilled tasks in jobs labeled as skilled. But it also reflects employers' reluctance to take on a new kind of labor, unable to meet their traditional hiring requirements; they may prefer to have some unfilled job openings, rather than face the problems such a change would entail.

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[31] A preliminary report on the findings of this study appears in Ivar Berg, "Educational Requirements for Jobs," *Manpower Strategies for the Metropolis*, ed. Eli Ginzberg (New York: Columbia University Press, in press).

[32] S. M. Miller, *Breaking the Credentials Barrier* (New York: The Ford Foundation, 1968).

Altogether, the present job structure and placement processes bar many of the sub-employed from jobs—particularly from jobs which have some status and are relatively well paid. The job structure also retards the upgrading of workers whose previous positions could then be filled by the sub-employed, and it restricts the downgrading of jobs in order to open them to the sub-employed. The problems the sub-employed face in their job search are obviously created in major part by this rigid job structure. Strategies for aiding their entry into steady employment will have to be concerned, among other things, with provision of incentives for modifying jobs so that disadvantaged workers can qualify for them.

## The Irregular Economy of Poverty Areas

The barriers which separate sub-employed slum residents, nonwhite or white, from the mainstream of economic and social life have resulted in the creation of a separate economic world, which differs vitally, and in many ways, from the middle-class world surrounding the slums. This world has its own special values, its own strategies for survival, its own moral standards, its own criteria of success or failure.

The sources of income of the poor and dependent—those at the bottom one-fifth of the income distribution—are varied, and public policy is directed at altering them in many ways. When income from employment is low, unstable, and unpredictable, the traditional distinctions between employment and unemployment, work and welfare become blurred, and extra-legal sources of income may be sought.

The contrasts between this irregular economy [33] of the slums and the country's regular economy are sharp. In the regular economy, work offers opportunities for vertical mobility, a reasonably predictable pattern of wage improvement with increasing seniority and skill, and the possibility of stable employment. Jobs can be classified in terms of status, skill requirements, and level and stability of earnings—as white- or blue-collar, skilled or unskilled, salaried or paying an hourly wage. By contrast, the irregular economy is characterized by horizontal mobility, erratic wage fluctuations, and overlap between the welfare and the wage systems. Jobs are better described as dead end, low wage, sporadic, extra-legal, and so forth.

The size, characteristics, and fluctuations of the irregular economy are not well known nor understood. How does this economy work? How does it overlap with the regular economy? What are its implications for public policy?

The irregular economy has many different income streams, which blend into economic sustenance for slumdwellers. Many people work in low-wage, part-time, marginal jobs that provide no ladder to better opportunities. The work may be physically exacting, job security low, and employment offered only on a short-time basis. In some jobs, the employer pays so little that employees have great temptation to steal from him in order to supplement their earnings. Occasionally, a criminal activity may be the source of income, but the situation is seldom so clear cut. A man may have his own type of "hustle"—an easy way to money, sometimes legitimate, sometimes partly not, that puts him in a quasi-entrepreneurial role. For example, he may discover where he can get a watch cheap—a "hot" watch—and then sell it to someone on his block. A woman may be on welfare for some months of the year and work in other months; [34] or she may receive welfare and at the same time work covertly; or a man may be living with a woman receiving welfare. As another alternative, a man may enroll in one of the training programs which pay stipends, in order to get funds to tide him over a lean period. Or he may borrow money, to be repaid when he gets a job or a hustle. Or he may decide to retire temporarily from the "scuffle" for a livelihood, and so swell the ranks of the jobless. However, many ghetto residents show high motivation and unusual resourcefulness and persistence in efforts to earn a living.

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[33] The irregular economy is discussed by Louis A Ferman in an unpublished paper titled, "The Irregular Economy: Informal Work Patterns in the Urban Ghetto" (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan—Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, June 1967).

[34] In 1966 about 12 percent of the case closings on AFDC were attributable to employment or increased earnings of the mothers.

A possible basis of life for marginal workers is thus provided by the irregular economy. The variations of this world, its occasional excitement and flexibility, may have more appeal to many such workers than do low-paid, demanding, regular jobs. According to a recent study:

> . . . the streetcorner man . . . knows the social value of the job by the amount of money the employer is willing to pay him for doing it. . . . every pay day, he counts . . . the value placed on the job by society at large. . . . Nor does the low-wage job offer prestige, respect, interesting work, opportunity for learning or advancement, or any other compensation . . . [The low-wage job in the regular economy is] hard, dirty, uninteresting and underpaid. The rest of society . . . holds the job of the dishwasher or janitor or unskilled laborer in low esteem if not outright contempt. So does the streetcorner man. He cannot do otherwise. He cannot draw from a job those social values which other people do not put into it.[35]

The marginal economy develops a social psychology appropriate to its work world. As the streetcorner man views his future:

> It is a future in which everything is uncertain except the ultimate destruction of his hopes and the eventual realization of his fears. . . . Thus, when Richard squanders a week's pay in two days it is not because . . . he is . . . unaware of or unconcerned with his future. He does so precisely because he is aware of the future and the hopelessness of it all.[36]

Since the jobs typically available to slum residents have no attraction in terms either of income or of the nature of the work, it is not surprising that many of these jobs are rejected or held for only short periods. A taxing regular job must offer higher income than the economic activities of the irregular economy to appear preferable to them. And it must offer compensation also for the strain of regular hours of work day in and day out, often in physically demanding or boring work, and of accommodating to supervisors.

There is evidence that many from poverty areas do not stay, even on better jobs. They may not know how to behave on such jobs or find it difficult to maintain the routine; or too much may be expected of them too soon; or their off-job situation may make it difficult to keep the job. For such workers, placement in jobs in the mainstream economy may not be enough; they will need assistance in handling and adjusting to the new jobs.

Employers and supervisors need to develop increased understanding of these workers' problems and to learn how they can be handled. When jobs are opened up for the disadvantaged, changes in the customary work patterns and in supervisory relationships are likely to be essential if the workers are to succeed in, and stay on, the job.

Furthermore, manpower and social policy must be concerned with the ways in which work-training and welfare programs influence the irregular economy. The more differentiated and partial the benefit system, the more opportunities for integration of this system with the irregular economy's other income sources. Programs which provide only marginal increases in an individual's income tend to reinforce this economy.

To challenge it effectively, more attractive alternatives must be provided. This can be done by helping private employers open reasonably well-paying jobs in the regular economy to sub-employed workers. Many individuals who live in the irregular economy are eager to leave it, provided they have a chance to really advance their position in a society strongly oriented toward consumption. They would welcome an opportunity to move from a dead end job to a career opportunity, such as the New Careers Program is designed to offer.[37]

## The AFDC Mother—A Case Study of Sub-Employment

Mothers receiving assistance through the Federal program of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) provide an illustrative case study of one group of sub-employed in the irregular economy—their problems, their difficulties in meeting these problems, and the way in which they react not only to their individual situations but also to the economic opportunities available to them.

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[35] Elliot Liebow, *Tally's Corner* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co.. 1967). pp. 57–59. This study describes the job and other experiences of the Negro marginal worker in a big city.

[36] Liebow, op. cit., p. 66.

[37] For a discussion of this program, see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

Many theories have been evolved, and myths created, about this relatively small group of the underprivileged. Recipients of AFDC have been widely regarded as caught in a chronic, static condition of dependency, handed down from one generation to the next. Welfare has been viewed as an alternative to work, increasingly unrelated to such economic factors as the general level of unemployment or the participation of women in the labor force. This discussion looks at some of these theories in the light of available evidence. Obviously, there are families whose members have been brought up with welfare support and then have gone on to raise their own families with such support. But there are also many families whose members are on welfare rolls for very short periods of time and never sever their connection with the labor force, even when they are on welfare.

AFDC recipients are encouraged by welfare agencies to find work. Their earnings are included in the total family income that is considered when the amount of welfare payment is determined. States may, however, disregard some part of the earnings of mothers in order to conserve them for the future needs of children.[38]

Each State sets its own cost standards for living requirements under AFDC. But many States also set arbitrary ceilings on the amount of assistance that will actually be paid—often well below the amount of determined need.

Data for the analysis that follows are drawn largely from the only two available national studies of AFDC caseloads. A study sponsored by the American Public Welfare Association was based on a 1-in-3 sample of cases closed during the first 3 months of 1961;[39] a study sponsored by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) covered a 1-percent sample of the cases currently active during the last 2 months of 1961.[40] The situation has undergone changes since that time—one of the most notable being the continuing increase in the AFDC caseload, despite the marked reduction in the overall rate of unemployment. The increased caseload is the result of many factors, including an increase in the numbers of young children, of female-headed households, and of children in such households; a relaxation in eligibility requirements in many States; and wider knowledge of the existence of the AFDC program. However, more recent evidence, including several studies of local situations, in general bears out the conclusions reached in the two nationwide surveys.

## LENGTH OF TIME ON WELFARE

One way of exploring whether welfare is in fact a way of life, passed on from one generation to another, is to examine the length of time individual recipients remain on welfare. In 1961, the median length of time on AFDC was 27 months for currently active cases and 18 months for closed cases. But the length of time on assistance varied widely with both race and residence. For closed cases, the median time spent on assistance was higher for Negroes (22 months) than for whites (15 months) and lower in urban areas (16 months) than in rural areas (20 months). Periods of dependency tended to be longer in medium-sized cities (50,000 to 500,000) than in the largest cities. In general, however, the mothers in rural farm and nonfarm areas were those who spent the longest continuous periods of time on assistance.[41]

These figures on "continuous time" on assistance obscure the great turnover in the AFDC rolls. A recent analysis of case turnover showed that 584,000 cases were authorized and 508,000 cases were closed in calendar year 1966, while slightly more than 1 million were carried over from the preceding year. Averaged over the year, about 45,000 new families were added to the rolls each month, while 41,000 left. Certain families have repeated periods on relief; of the cases added in 1966, about 34 percent had received assistance previously.[42]

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[38] The 1967 amendments liberalize somewhat the amount of income which may be excluded in determining AFDC assistance. See *Summary of Social Security Amendments of 1967* (Washington: 90th Cong., 1st sess., Committee on Finance of the U.S. Senate and Committee on Ways and Means of the U.S. House of Representatives, December 1967), p. 17.

[39] M. Elaine Burgess and Daniel O. Price, *An American Dependency Challenge* (Chicago: American Public Welfare Association, 1963).

[40] *Study of Recipients of Aid to Families With Dependent Children, November–December 1961; National Cross-Tabulations* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Welfare Administration, August 1965).

[41] Burgess and Price, op. cit., p. 50.

[42] Wilbur Cohen, testifying as Under Secretary of HEW, said that it would be a great mistake to think of the caseload as being static, with the same families continuing to receive assistance for long periods of time. *Social Security Amendments of 1967*, Hearings Before the Committee on Finance (Washington: 90th Cong., 1st sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Finance, 1967), H.R. 12080, pt. I, pp. 254 and 730.

Since individuals do go on and off welfare, cumulative data showing the total time spent on welfare by an AFDC mother and her children are important in determining how welfare fits into their life cycle. According to the study of cases closed in 1961, 10 percent of the Negro and 7 percent of the white mothers had spent 9 or more years on welfare. Nevertheless, in absolute terms, white families outnumbered Negro families among the very small minority of AFDC cases on assistance for as long as this.[43]

The proportion of their adult life that women spend on AFDC is another significant measure of their dependence on this assistance. A study based on a 1-percent random sample of AFDC cases in Philadelphia (drawn in 1959, and followed through to 1962) showed that the majority (60 percent) had spent slightly less than half (47 percent) of their adult life on welfare.[44] In at least one city, then, welfare was not a permanent or exclusive style of life for all of the women on AFDC during the time they raised their children.

Finally, intergenerational dependency on welfare can also be measured. In the cases closed during early 1961, less than a third both of the white and of the Negro mothers had grown up in families in which their parents had also been on assistance.[45] However, a study in the State of Washington in 1964 yielded a substantially higher figure. About 43 percent of the AFDC mothers in the sample reported that their parents had been on assistance—3 percent said their parents had been dependent for as long as they could remember; 27 percent said that they had been dependent for several years; and 13 percent said that they had received assistance for a brief period.[46]

Altogether, the generalization that welfare becomes a permanent style of life for all or most AFDC recipients is not supported by the available evidence. The people on welfare are a varied group. Many of the families are not involved in long-term or intergenerational dependency. It must be recognized, however, that significant proportions of AFDC families do represent a second generation on welfare. This is one of the problems to which the program changes provided for by the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act are addressed.

## WELFARE AND WORK

Welfare and employment are widely regarded as alternative rather than complementary or overlapping sources of income. The AFDC caseload is generally seen as made up of nonworking mothers. This is consistent with the theory of public assistance embodied in the original Social Security Act of 1935, which assumed that social insurance protected members of the labor force when their income was interrupted, while federally financed social assistance was for the unemployable. The 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act are directed at promoting economic independence—a permanent or long term break from the irregular economy—through a program of social services, job training, and cash incentives.[47]

TABLE 1. PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF AFDC CHILDREN BY COLOR AND BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF HOMEMAKER DURING PERIOD ON AFDC[1]

| Employment status of homemaker | White | Negro |
|---|---|---|
| Total: Number | 9,629 | 4,245 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Employed | 26.4 | 40.6 |
| Full-time throughout period | 3.0 | 5.4 |
| Full-time most of period | 4.5 | 4.4 |
| Part-time throughout period | 4.8 | 11.0 |
| Part-time most of period | 7.2 | 12.6 |
| Other employment history | 6.9 | 7.2 |
| Not employed | 73.2 | 58.8 |
| Employment status unknown | .4 | .6 |

[1] Based on a sample of cases closed in first 3 months of 1961; includes children born in wedlock only.

SOURCE: M. Elaine Burgess and Daniel O. Price, *An American Dependency Challenge* (Chicago: American Public Welfare Association, 1963), based on table on p. 268.

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[43] Burgess and Price, op. cit., p. 49.

[44] Jane C. Kronick, "Family Life and Economic Dependency, A Report to the Welfare Administration" October 27, 1965 (mimeo.). In addition, a special analysis of the relationship between welfare and work experience of AFDC families in Philadelphia was made for this report.

The age of the mothers is important since a high proportion of adult life can mean a short period of time in the case of young mothers. In the Philadelphia study, the average age of the mothers was 35, and as only a small proportion of young mothers was included, age bias does not appear important in this case.

[45] Burgess and Price, op. cit., based on tables on pp. 258, 259, and 280.

[46] *Public Welfare, Poverty—Prevention or Perpetuation* (New York: Greenleigh Associates, December 1964), p. 32.

[47] The new Work Incentives Program for welfare recipients (WIN) is discussed in more detail in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

The recent amendments are based on the assumption that AFDC mothers have been entirely outside the labor force and that, if adequate child-care facilities are made available, they can, through training and other services, be enabled to care for themselves and their families. But, in fact, AFDC mothers have frequently been active members of the sub-employed labor force—the underemployed and low-wage workers. Public assistance often served as a form of wage supplementation for the low-paid, partially employed worker. Welfare status did not necessarily represent a sharp break with the labor force, as the theory of assistance would imply.

The study of AFDC cases closed in 1961 showed that about 26 percent of the white and 41 percent of the Negro children were in families where the mothers had maintained some degree of attachment to the labor force during the periods on AFDC. (See table 1.) About half of the mothers had been regularly employed before receiving welfare and continued to be regularly employed after receipt of AFDC payments.[48]

The HEW study of AFDC cases active in late 1961 showed the mother's employment status at a given point in time, rather than over a longer period. Of all AFDC mothers on the rolls at the time of the study, 14 percent were employed—including 11 percent of the white and 19 percent of the Negro mothers.[49]

The study of the AFDC caseload in Philadelphia in 1962 classified the work history of AFDC mothers in terms of their level of skill and job stability, based on information on their first job, their longest job, and their most recent job. About 40 percent of the women had a stable work history, and 47 percent an unstable one. Only 13 percent had no history of work. Of those with a work history, 40 percent had been employed in skilled or semi-skilled jobs.

Thus, AFDC mothers can hardly be described as a group made up predominantly of "work-shy women" who inherited their welfare status. However, there appears to be a generational difference in these women's work histories. The older ones had the more stable work history but lower levels of skill, while the reverse was true for the younger women. These different work habits may have resulted from the nature of the job market at the time the women entered it. Older women had apparently been able to develop a pattern of stability in a job world which accepted their low level of skill, but younger women with higher education and somewhat more skill appeared unable to develop a pattern of work stability in the present, more demanding job market. In general, the women who were unskilled workers had spent less of their adult lives on assistance than had the more skilled.

TABLE 2. PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF HOMEMAKER DURING PERIOD ON AFDC, BY COLOR[1]

| Place of residence | All AFDC families[2] (percent distribution) | Percent with homemaker employed | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | White | Negro |
| Total | 100.0 | 26.4 | 40.6 |
| METROPOLITAN COUNTIES | | | |
| City of 500,000 or more | 25.3 | 16.4 | 23.5 |
| City of 50,000 to 499,999 | 21.1 | 25.9 | 45.8 |
| City of 2,500 to 49,999 | 7.5 | 25.8 | 44.4 |
| Rural nonfarm | 4.4 | 25.6 | 56.5 |
| NONMETROPOLITAN COUNTIES | | | |
| City of 2,500 to 49,999 | 19.4 | 33.2 | 57.6 |
| Rural nonfarm | 18.4 | 26.7 | 56.5 |
| Farm | 3.9 | 20.8 | 72.9 |

[1] Based on a sample of cases closed during first 3 months of 1961.

[2] A few families, 0.3 percent, were in farm areas of metropolitan counties.

SOURCE: M. Elaine Burgess and Daniel O. Price, *An American Dependency Challenge* (Chicago: American Public Welfare Association, 1963), based on tables on pp. 264, 265, and 268.

In view of the generally higher overall rates of unemployment among unskilled than higher skilled workers, this is a rather significant finding. It underlines the special circumstances—social and psychological as well as economic—which affect the work situation of these sub-employed women and other groups in the irregular economy.

The type of locality in which these mothers lived also had a marked effect on their pattern of employment. According to the study of cases closed in early 1961, the proportion of mothers who had been employed was lowest in large cities. This was true of both white and Negro mothers, but geographic location had a greater effect on the employment pattern of Negro women than on that of whites. Only about one-fourth of the Negro women in cities of over half a million had worked while on welfare, as compared with nearly 3 out of every 4 of those on farms. (See table 2.)

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[48] Burgess and Price, op. cit., pp. 28 and 250.

[49] *Study of Recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children, November–December 1961: National Cross-Tabulations,* table 25.

### SOME IMPLICATIONS AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENTS

These findings cast some doubt on two of the dominant ideas which color much of the discussion about the public assistance program—that being on welfare generally becomes a permanent style of life and that the benefits it provides are an alternative to work. Employment and welfare are systems which mesh in complex ways. Welfare is a form of social provision when income is absent, interrupted, or inadequate, and not simply a cash transfer system operating outside the world of work.

Much more information is needed, however, about the interrelationships between work and welfare and, in particular, about why many AFDC mothers work. At present, there is no definitive information on this latter point. One can do little more than speculate regarding the factors that enter into the situation and even about how many mothers do and do not increase their total income through their work.

To throw light on these basic questions will require extensive study of the circumstances surrounding these women's employment, as well as analysis of their budgets. The need for such research is the more urgent because of the possible implications of the findings for current programs aimed at increasing employment of AFDC mothers.

It seems probable that, in many cases, monetary incentives may not be the crucial factor in the mothers' decisions to work. At the same time, it is likely to take more than minimum earnings to effect a real change in the status of AFDC recipients; this requires income adequate for upward mobility—for a takeoff from dependency to economic self-sufficiency.[50] Thus, programs of income incentives and work training may not reverse the upward trend in the welfare rolls, unless the training is designed to move clients to permanent employment at adequate wages. The new Work Incentive Program established under the 1967 Social Security Act amendments is aimed at precisely this objective.

An expansion of child-care facilities is also provided for by these amendments, on the assumption that lack of such facilities has been one of the factors which prevent AFDC mothers from seeking employment. The total capacity of licensed child-care facilities in the United States is placed presently at only 310,000 to 350,000. So the proportion of working women using such facilities is necessarily small. According to a 1965 study, only about 5 percent of all working mothers placed their children in group care. Of those with low incomes (under $3,000), only 3 percent used such facilities.

In view of these findings, it is not clear how expansion of child-care facilities will affect the AFDC mother's entry into the labor force. But whether or not the number of such mothers who become economically self-sufficient increases markedly, the provision of more good facilities for child care should help both the mothers and the children who use them. It may reasonably be expected that such services will ease the tensions of work for these women and reduce their absences from the job. They will also improve the situation of the children, who will benefit socially and educationally from organized programs of care.

## Some Considerations Affecting Manpower Policies

### OBJECTIVES IN JOB DEVELOPMENT

To provide a satisfactory alternative to dependence on welfare or other sources of income in the irregular economy, a job must now offer more than mere subsistence. This is apparent from the foregoing discussion both of the irregular economy and of AFDC mothers' sometimes alternate, sometimes simultaneous reliance on work and welfare.

Jobs which furnish only subsistence for the worker and his family have become less and less satisfactory, as the majority of people in this country have achieved higher standards of living, and as the provision of minimum subsistence has become increasingly a function of public welfare. Little is yet known about the job "extras" which are most important to sub-employed workers, but the identification of these "extras" is crucial to a successful policy of job creation for the disadvantaged.

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[50] For a discussion of this issue, see Alvin L. Schorr, *Poor Kids* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1966).

Two questions must be considered. The first relates to the amount of earnings: How much more than subsistence is a job expected to provide? The second involves the kinds of job extras which may be expected. While these two questions are not easily distinguished, their formulation may help clarify the problems manpower policy must confront.

Does the prospective jobholder see his job as one which should provide him with the means to subsistence, plus comfort and security? Or does he want a "career"—a reasonable expectation that he will be able to move upward, socially and economically?

A study of Negroes in Philadelphia illustrates the importance of income as opposed to status. Given a hypothetical choice between a high-status but relatively low-paid job and a low-status but higher paid job, those in the lowest socioeconomic group consistently chose the latter. But this was not true for respondents with higher status.[51]

Further evidence also suggests that among workers in low-income groups, the majority direct their job aspirations toward the goal of the "good American life"—of ability to provide for the comfort and security of their families. Both men and women respondents in a public housing project in St. Louis generally agreed that "a job should come first," and that "the most important thing a parent can do is to help his children get further ahead than he did."[52]

Thus, current concern about dead end jobs may not be valid for many sub-employed adults, since the first priority for those with family responsibilities is likely to be a job with wages high enough for adequate family support, and indirectly for the upward mobility of the children. For lower income respondents who have modest aspirations and who wish to provide for their families, the level of wages and job security become important considerations in job creation. Members of this group want to be part of the stable working class, and they are not averse to menial jobs, if such jobs pay well.

At some point in the lives of many disadvantaged boys and men, aspirations for a job which would provide either "the good American life" or career success become frustrated. Made aware of these generally accepted objectives through mass communications media, if not through personal experience, these men often have a heightened sense of comparative deprivation as well as frustration.

One response to this frustration is retreat into despair and hopelessness; another is resort to illegitimate activity. The slum resident who frequently has even his modest aspirations frustrated also lives in a community environment which provides relatively easy access to illegitimate means for achieving those aspirations. As the Secretary of Labor has said:[53]

> We realize all of a sudden the very intimate, sinister, complex interrelationship between crime and the unemployment that we have now. It is not only that unemployment produces crime. It is that crime, to a very considerable extent, complicates the motivational problem in the slums. I hate to say to you how many times we run into a boy who hesitates to take a training program with an allowance of perhaps $35 a week, when he could make five times that much peddling dope.

In dealing with the critical though small minority of the sub-employed engaged in activities such as peddling dope and picking up numbers, Government job creation and training programs compete with the high monetary return of organized crime, as well as with other economic rewards of the irregular economy. Such illegitimate job substitutes also have other attractions for slum residents in addition to their monetary aspects, and these must be better understood also if the problems they present are to be met. Nevertheless, the inference is clear from several studies that people in lower income groups generally prefer less remunerative but secure jobs to high-paying, high-risk activities. Crime cannot provide the "extra" of job security; perhaps governmental policy can.

Finally, manpower and antipoverty programs may themselves contribute to frustration if they raise hopes which they fail to fulfill. These programs have done much to awaken dormant aspirations. For example, about two-thirds of Job Corps recruits already had jobs—generally at very low wages—but wanted to better their situation. If programs do not meet justified expectations, despair will intensify.

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[51] Seymour Parker and Robert Kleiner, "Status Position, Mobility, and Ethnic Identification of the Negro," *Journal of Social Issues*, April 1964, pp. 85–102.

[52] William Yancy, op. cit.

[53] *Examination of the War on Poverty*, Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Employment, Manpower, and Poverty (Washington: 90th Cong., 1st sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, July 1967), S. 1545, pt. 10, p. 3237.

The dilemma is clear. Without aspirations and hope, little can be accomplished. But aspirations and hope are fragile, requiring reinforcement from life experience. To snuff out hope once it is kindled may leave a worse situation than before.

## SOCIAL OBJECTIVES

If manpower policy is to serve social objectives with emphasis on the disadvantaged, these objectives must be better understood and articulated. The priorities assigned to different objectives—implicitly if not explicitly—greatly influence decisions as to how manpower resources should be allocated.

The three objectives selected for discussion here represent alternative approaches to the common goal of social integration and stability. They all bear directly on current efforts to help the sub-employed enter and adjust to regular jobs, and to overcome dependence on welfare or extra-legal activities. These related but also competing objectives are:

—To substitute earned for unearned income, because of the therapeutic quality of work.

—To contribute to family stability by concentrating on employment for men, while also considering the needs of women family heads.

—To build self-respect and satisfaction by providing jobs which have "quality," either in terms of career potential or immediately satisfactory income.

### Work as Social Therapy

The rationale for emphasizing work or earned income as a social objective lies in the constructive impact work has on behavior. In past years, theories of how to promote personal and social stability and reduce delinquency and crime placed reliance on remedial programs involving organized recreation, street clubs which combined play and counseling, and sound housing to replace dilapidated slums. But faith in these approaches has been slowly lost. Today, the opportunity theory of delinquency stresses the importance of removing barriers which inhibit low-income youth from sharing the employment and other benefits available in the broader society.

Loosely interpreted, this theory means programs which emphasize jobs and education. The Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act of 1961 adopted this frame of reference in launching a series of new programs which emphasized the link between work and reduction of social disorganization. In the wake of riots and unrest in the central cities, the theory that work may reduce crime has been extended to include the idea that work may also reduce social unrest.

This theory of the therapeutic effects of work has led to policies aimed at getting as many of the sub-employed as possible into jobs—at substituting earned income for public relief or the hustle. Emphasis is on the importance of jobs as such; the quality of the jobs and the level of income they produce are regarded as secondary considerations.

The analysis earlier in this chapter of the demographic characteristics of the sub-employed and the social-psychological barriers to their employment lends some support to this approach by underlining the importance of entry jobs for these disadvantaged people. But the foregoing discussion also suggests the shortcomings of this thesis, which makes no allowance for the job "extras" many individuals may demand as offsets to the advantages of activities in the irregular economy, and in fulfillment of expectations as to an acceptable level of income in this affluent country.

### Personal and Family Stability

Complementary to the theory of the social therapy of work is the objective of increasing family stability. This objective stresses the male-headed household, where the man can serve as the role model for young people as they develop. The quality of family life is assumed to generate motivation for work and social involvement. Accordingly, manpower and social policies must be directed at strengthening the family, which serves as the most effective instrument for social orientation of youth and for facilitating their entry into the job market.

With family stability a primary objective, manpower policy must be aimed not simply at expanding employment of the disadvantaged but also at determining which individuals are to get the available jobs. And on this point, the implication is clear: priority should be given to jobs for adult men—in the hope that this will have the double effect of keeping men who are already household heads in their homes and of encouraging those who have left the household to return. Men are not always the most disadvantaged members of the sub-employed. But if they are to achieve the same position in the world of the minority which they enjoy in that of the majority, they must become the principal wage earners and family providers.

At the same time, the many women who are household heads also deserve priority consideration. Families headed by women are among the most impoverished, include large numbers of children, and provide the only source of psychological and economic stability these children have. The disadvantaged women who carry the heavy burden of supporting a family have a high claim on training opportunities and other help in obtaining decently paid jobs.

### The Quality of Work and Income

The third objective is "decent" work and adequate income. This approach emphasizes the link between the level of income and social stability. The quality of work and the amount of income are regarded as of prime importance (rather than the source of income, emphasized in the approach based on the therapeutic value of work). Work in itself may not be as critical as the amount of income it yields.

A project in Milwaukee designed to retrain AFDC mothers for employment illustrates this point. According to the data available, the mothers were enabled to get and presumably hold jobs, but their earnings were not appreciably higher than their welfare payments had been. The source of their income was changed without improving the quality of their life.

Such an outcome might be acceptable if it is assumed that welfare payments are stigmatizing. On this basis, substituting earned income for welfare would, by itself, enhance the individuals' dignity and improve the quality of their life. But it could be argued that the stigma might also be removed by developing alternative cash transfer programs—family allowances or a negative income tax, for example—which allocate income with dignity.

That the quality of work and the level of income earned may be crucial in promoting social stability is suggested by more direct evidence, however. The participants in recent urban riots apparently did not represent the most disadvantaged people in the slum areas involved. Indeed, "evidence about educational achievement suggests that the rioters were . . . slightly better educated than their peers . . . and . . . the great majority . . . were currently employed." The conclusion was that the Watts rioters were in "the mainstream of modern Negro urban life." [54] They were not simply seeking jobs, but better ones. This may indicate that, to a large group of rioters, jobs with dignity and power were more important than just being at work.

A Department of Labor study of 500 persons arrested in connection with the Detroit riots in July 1967 led to similar findings.[55] The typical prisoner was employed at the time of the riot—working in a manufacturing plant, where he earned an average of $120 a week. Two out of every five of the prisoners had a high school education or better, but only a few (probably around 1 out of 10) had a skilled or white-collar job, commensurate with this level of education. Furthermore, the rate of unemployment was high—22 percent, about five times the average unemployment rate for the entire Detroit metropolitan area.

The kinds of tasks involved in a job and the conditions under which these are performed can be important also. A low-status job presumably affects the worker's attitudes about himself as well as his employment. In a society where the poor of a big city can constantly see the inequities of their situation, the issue is not merely jobs as against no jobs, but what kind of jobs they can get.[56] The quality of the jobs available to slum residents assumes steadily growing importance—measured in terms not only of income and stability but also of amenities such as decent treatment by supervisors and of the absence of strenuous labor. Freedom from hard physical work has become an important status symbol in the present-day nonagricultural economy, and the physical limitations of many of the sub-employed make heavy labor impossible for them.

From this perspective, it is not enough to get poor people—or even adult men—into jobs. Rather, it is essential to provide decent, acceptable work for the sub-employed. This theory assumes that significant changes in behavior might not result, for example, if unemployment were wiped out by obvious, permanent make-work. Full participation in economic life requires a job meeting decent standards with respect to treatment by supervisors, the nature of the work involved, adequacy of income, and employment security.

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[54] Robert M. Fogelson, "White on Black: A Critique of the McCone Commission Report on the Los Angeles Riots," *Political Science Quarterly*, September 1967, p. 346.

[55] See *The Detroit Riot . . . A Profile of 500 Prisoners* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor), March 1968.

[56] Herbert Gans, "Malemployment," *New Generation*, Spring 1968.

One of the important sources of jobs of quality, dignity, and power is employment in ghetto establishments, owned and operated by members of the ghetto community. Bringing into the area plants and jobs controlled by outside businesses may not be sufficient, although if local residents participate in the management of these plants, this difficulty may be overcome.

The analogy with developing countries is compelling. Citizens of such countries insist not only on jobs at high pay but also on control over, and ownership of, the industry as well. A job becomes a way of getting power and prestige, as well as income.

The development of community corporations or small businesses in the ghetto will buttress the elements of strength in the ghetto community. While such firms may not by themselves have a major impact on the sub-employment problem, the effect on morale is likely to be marked.

## Needs and Strategies in Manpower Policies

The varied needs of the different groups of sub-employed and the divergent social objectives just discussed call for a variety of program strategies. This has been recognized in developing the present battery of manpower programs, many of which are aimed specifically at problems outlined in this chapter. A vital step is continuing improvement in program operations as new information is obtained on the effectiveness of each program in reaching the social objectives just discussed. Similarly, continuous study will be required of the interrelationships between programs and the extent to which they compete with or reinforce each other. And even while feedback on program accomplishments is being obtained, priorities will need to be established among the social objectives specified and, correlatively, among the various possible approaches to aiding the disadvantaged.

The need for frequent evaluation and adjustment of manpower programs in the light of social objectives has been recognized since the early days of these programs. It now appears, for example, that a major focus of manpower policy should be on efforts to reduce sub-employment of adult men in large cities—balancing the recent emphasis on youth programs and the relatively large opportunities for training provided for women in some localities under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Furthermore, the success of the efforts now being made to meet employment needs and diminish social unrest in the ghettos through the new Job Opportunities in Business Sector (JOBS) Program and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) may well hinge upon the success of these programs in providing not merely additional jobs, but quality jobs, for the sub-employed.[37]

To undergird efforts in all these areas of manpower concern, further progress is needed also in four broad directions—toward further integration of manpower program and services; toward the development of a variety of job situations suited to the needs of the sub-employed; toward resources adequate for the complex of individualized services they need; and toward improvements in the quality of programs. Manpower strategy is and must be concerned with advances in each of these directions.

### TOWARD FURTHER INTEGRATION OF MANPOWER PROGRAMS

Federal, State, and local governments all contribute in many ways to the country's manpower programs. A large number of agencies at every level of government are involved in providing training, job development, placement, and other manpower services. They have also participated in the shift in manpower goals, during the last few years, to primary orientation toward the disadvantaged worker.

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[37] For a discussion of these and other current manpower programs and the objectives to which they are directed, see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

With this shift has come increased experimentation and exploration, but not yet a fully coordinated and interconnected system of programs and services. Problems of coordination of manpower programs at the Federal level have been substantially worked out. However, the development of the best possible working relationships between Federal, State, and local agencies is still unfinished business, although substantial progress has been made in this direction.

The characteristics of a fully developed manpower system are known—integrated, flexible, diversified, person-centered, coordinated, durable, and continuous. The difficulties lie in implementing these concepts, not only at the Federal, State, and city levels, but even more critically at the neighborhood level. Development of responsibility and authority in the neighborhood is crucial, but to achieve this also requires allocation of responsibility and authority at higher levels in the city and above.

The structure of programs—involving many different public and private agencies, with separate funding and separate staffs—has been a major obstacle in efforts to forge an effective system. It has also had a direct effect on the quality of services provided. Just as the allocation of welfare expenditures often forces an individual to receive services based on the category into which he fits, rather than on his particular needs, so the divisions between manpower programs have hampered the provision of services tailored to the individual.[58]

Integration and coordination of activities, needed at all levels, are most important at the point of delivery of services. To be effective, efforts to increase coordination must be aimed directly at better service to the individuals involved.

Sub-employed individuals who are to be helped should each be assigned to a person who can call on services, obtain jobs, and the like. This person would make the important recommendations and arrange for the services. He should follow through on the entire process, so that there is clear-cut responsibility for the outcome.

Another important issue is the appropriate sorting of individuals into the various manpower programs. The program an individual goes into has depended to some extent on chance, partly because many cities have lacked a central agency in close contact with the variety of programs now available. It is now recognized as essential to assure that a person is routed into the appropriate activity, that he benefits from the program, and that he is enabled to move into a decent job.

In the past, the unit of manpower policy has been, to a large extent, the individual program rather than the individual person. But as many recent program developments emphasize, the need is for centering on the person and for assuring that he gets a job. Responsibility should not end there, however, since he may not stay on the job, especially if he is among the more disadvantaged workers. Responsibility for the worker must extend beyond the initial placement and even involve giving a second chance to those who quit.

To provide the organizational framework that would facilitate the exercise of effective and continuing concern for individuals is the objective of a number of major new programs—notably, the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System and the Concentrated Employment Program. The new neighborhood centers in many areas also are aimed at bringing to individuals the constellation of services they need.

Steady improvements may be expected through these efforts to coordinate and concentrate programs. It should be recognized, however, that grave difficulties are often encountered and have to be overcome in bringing the needed program components together into an effective system.[59]

## TOWARD OPENING MORE JOBS FOR THE SUB-EMPLOYED

The economic expansion of the past 7 years has drawn many previously jobless workers into employment in cities and rural areas as well. But many of the sub-employed in city slums have not obtained jobs and will not get them without special help, even assuming continued rapid economic growth.

All too often, decent employment has not been available for relatively low-skilled workers under prevailing hiring standards. Employers are frequently unwilling to tolerate workers who do not quickly meet established standards of promptness, low absenteeism, and comportment. The key, then, is the development of more job situations suited to the needs of the disadvantaged, and designed to aid both the worker and the employer in what may be a difficult adjustment process.

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[58] Martin Rein, "The Social Service Crisis," *Transaction*, May 1964, pp. 3–6, and 31–32.

[59] For a detailed account of recent experience, see Peter Marris and Martin Rein, *Dilemmas of Social Reform*, Poverty and Community Action in the United States (New York: Atherton Press, 1966), pp. 70–92.

Some of the sub-employed can work in standard jobs if hiring—and also retention—requirements are reduced. There has been, in fact, considerable movement in this direction in both the public and private sectors of the economy. Many government agencies have scaled down their educational requirements. In several cities, employers have begun to hire men whom they would previously have rejected. More than hiring appears to be necessary, however, in view of reports of frequently high turnover rates among disadvantaged workers in these standard jobs.

At least some standard jobs could be modified to provide more extensive and flexible induction processes on the job. Workers new to production-line activity or to steady, quality employment do not always rapidly accept and acquire the normal work practices and habits. While some of the disadvantaged have no problem in adjusting to a steady work pattern, experience shows that many do. To meet their special needs, the standard job might be modified in one of two ways—adaptation of traditional working arrangements, or increased and continued services and supervision. The former approach may involve longer work induction and training processes than are typically required for new recruits. In some cases, it may be desirable to assign disadvantaged workers, at least at the beginning, to units made up of formerly sub-employed workers who have adjusted to the work pattern.[60] It may be useful, also, to experiment with placing these workers throughout a plant as openings arise, or with mixed units including both disadvantaged and other workers. No one method is appropriate for all of the sub-employed, and a large plant employing many of the disadvantaged might utilize different methods—in each case selecting that which best fits the particular worker.

Separate work units for the formerly sub-employed—whether in plants to which they travel or in new firms near their homes—would facilitate adjusting their work day, if this appears necessary to keep these workers on the job. Is it essential that everyone work a regular 8-hour day? A shorter working day (with less pay) might be possible, at least at the beginning, for workers who are the most difficult to retain. They would then gradually work toward a longer day. Another possibility is to have workers come in later in the morning—perhaps at 9 or 10 a.m.—rather than insisting that everyone get to work by 8 a.m. from the start. Such experiments would, obviously, require a high degree of cooperation and understanding on the part of the regular work force, and might prove feasible only in exceptional work situations.

Still another possibility might be an intensive program of education for workers already on the job, to enlist their help in the adjustment process of the newly hired sub-employed. A key element in the Concentrated Employment Program is the assignment of a "coach" to each new worker to help him adjust to the job, aid him with off-the-job problems, and also help management adjust to these new workers. To be effective, coaches should work with only one or a few of the newly hired, so the system is expensive. It is not a magical solution to the problems of job adjustment and turnover, but in a positive job setting, it can make a substantial contribution.

In addition, supervisors of the formerly sub-employed may need training in working with this group, administrative support for their efforts, and time to spend on working with the new employees. Fitting a new kind of worker into a traditional work assignment may not be easy if the supervisor has this responsibility added to already heavy burdens. If supervisory aides could be provided, this would help to give new workers the kind and extent of supervision many of them need.

These kinds of changes in normal working arrangements would, of course, involve additional costs—and possibly heavy ones. Reimbursement of employers for these extra costs is, therefore, an essential feature of the new JOBS Program and also of several experimental programs already underway.

Besides special working arrangements in standard jobs, "protected" or "sheltered" employment will need to be developed for some of the sub-employed. An unknown but surely substantial number, have difficulty in adapting to even modified employment. "Motivational training" helps some of them; for Negroes, training programs tied to racial pride may be effective. But for others, training is not the answer; they need to be put directly into remunerative work producing a creditable output. The employment arrangements must be flexible, and the workers must recognize that these arrangements offer the possibility of successful movement into regular jobs.

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[60] This arrangement would promote the development of group feeling and team spirit, which might facilitate adjustment to mainstream industrial life.

This kind of graduated, special employment situation may have to continue for a considerable length of time before the worker may be able to manage a job elsewhere. The main purpose should be to provide meaningful, paid work experience for men, though some women will undoubtedly want and need this protected job situation also. There is, of course, danger that such an arrangement will become a permanent crutch for the workers involved. To prevent this will require good supervisors with time to give close attention to individual workers and a definite plan to help ease workers into a more independent role. Counseling and other services should also be available on and off the job.

The development of new types of standard jobs can help to meet the needs of another, less disadvantaged group of the sub-employed. There is need, for example, for rapid expansion of subprofessional occupations and particularly for increasing the number of men in this kind of work. Subprofessional positions have more interesting elements than most of the jobs open to the unskilled. They also have stature. And many subprofessional posts are in poverty areas—an important consideration, since one of the major issues in expanding the number of standard jobs available to the sub-employed is location. As suggested earlier, there is considerable merit in developing standard jobs in the slum neighborhoods where the sub-employed live; travel time is reduced, and attitudes toward work among neighborhood residents may be improved.

The total number of subprofessional jobs so far available to the poor is not large enough, however, to reduce hard-core unemployment significantly. Further expansion of such openings is needed and, along with this, training of and services for the sub-employed to enable them to qualify for these openings.

In many situations, both in government and private agencies, new funds would not be needed to augment the number of subprofessional jobs. Restructuring existing professional jobs (many of which cannot be filled because of shortages of qualified personnel) so that less trained people can take over part of the work would immediately increase the number of openings. While there has been some movement in this direction, so far only a small start has been made toward a potentially more rational allocation of tasks and personnel.

What is needed, then, is a multiple strategy—opening up more traditional jobs to persons with limited education and also developing new kinds of jobs for them. Some of the sub-employed will be able to fill these jobs adequately from the start. For others, the jobs will have to be modified so that they can manage them more effectively; for this group, the provision of supporting services is important. For still others—the ones most difficult to keep on the job—even these steps may not be enough. A new and specially constructed employment situation may be needed for such individuals, without expectation of rapid solution of their work difficulties.

If a wide variety of job situations were available, the sub-employed could go into the one best suited to their needs at a particular stage in their development, and move on to other situations as these become appropriate for them. A variety of opportunities and individual treatment for each sub-employed person are crucially important.

## TOWARD ADEQUATE RESOURCES

Manpower programs, to be effective in helping the most disadvantaged, will require large expenditures over an extended period. In the past, instability in funding and lack of assurance of funds from one year to another have sometimes been grave problems. But even more important, of course, is the amount of funds available. The President's recommended budget for fiscal 1969, which calls for an increase of 25 percent in manpower funds, clearly recognizes this fact.

To help a low-skilled worker get and keep a decent job is likely to involve costs beyond those which employers have customarily assumed. Thus, private employers may need financial help if they are to train low-skilled workers and prepare them for responsible, well-paying jobs (as already indicated), and this help may have to continue until the worker has reached reasonably high productivity.

Four factors which contribute to the high cost of helping the disadvantaged are the essentiality of adequate pay, the length of time during which services should be provided, the wide range of services likely to be required, and the need to open new sources of job opportunities in slum areas.

The target of providing men with satisfying jobs, and with earnings high enough to compete with the irregular economy and to support their families, requires that pay be substantially above the training stipends established in the past. Since these jobs are to be regarded as work rather than training, pay must be indicative of a regular job and not suggestive of a temporary, low training allowance.

If the goal is to insure not merely that the worker gets training or work experience but that he enters and stays in a decent job, it will be necessary to continue services to workers over a much longer period than has been usual in the past. Lengthening the period of responsibility, of course, means higher costs.

In addition, for many of the sub-employed in big cities who are particularly difficult to place, a variety of services will undoubtedly be needed—ranging from medical care to improved basic education, to employment and skill training, to provision of coaches who can facilitate work adjustment. More services for more workers over longer periods mean greater expenditures. But the expression "penny wise, pound foolish" applies particularly in the case of the most disadvantaged worker. If the choice is between giving some limited help to a greater number of the most disadvantaged (at a lower cost per person) or giving a smaller number more intensive services (at higher per-person cost), the latter may be the more desirable course. A little money spent on a greatly disadvantaged individual may serve only as a stopgap and, in the long run, be largely wasted.

A fourth cost factor is that some of the new job opportunities must be located in slum areas. The start-up funds needed for new firms run by neighborhood people will be considerable, as will the operating costs until the new firms become self-supporting.

Altogether, though sizable resources have already been invested by the Government in manpower and job development efforts, the needs of the more disadvantaged workers have not yet been fully met. The President's budget recommendations for fiscal 1969 will make possible expanded programs to get the hard-core unemployed into jobs. Experience during the year will indicate whether still greater resources in providing employment opportunities for the sub-employed of big cities are essential.

## TOWARD PROGRESSIVE IMPROVEMENT IN MANPOWER SERVICES

Finally, the efforts already underway to improve the quality of training and other manpower services and their relevance to the needs of the disadvantaged must be continued and strengthened. In training the sub-employed, manpower programs have, to some extent, taken on a function of education and skill development in which the schools have failed, and they have often had as trainees individuals with attitudes shaped by unhappy school experiences. Frequently, the trained personnel and the skill-educational designs needed to work effectively with the sub-employed have been lacking. Coupled with financing and organizational problems, these difficulties have sometimes resulted in low-quality programs, despite constant concern for preventing and remedying such deficiencies.

*Clarification of the objectives* of individual programs and their components is needed in some cases and is now the target of concerted efforts. Sometimes a program has moved in several directions at the same time. It may, for example, be predicated on the notion of working with the hard-core unemployed, but have an intricate recruiting and intake process. Or training may be oriented to increasing skills, yet a trainee may not be actively discouraged from dropping out of the program to take an available job no better than his previous one.

In seeking to eliminate such inconsistencies, it is recognized that different programs should have different objectives, within an overall manpower plan or system for the community (like that which the CAMPS Program is designed to develop). But whatever its goal, a program must be internally consistent, and its various parts must reinforce each other. A quality program requires moving toward a clear objective in terms of who goes into the program and what the outcome for him is expected to be.

Difficulty in *recruiting qualified staff* and a high rate of staff turnover are major problems for many programs. Those funded on an annual basis find it hard to attract and keep good staff, although officials frequently have been ingenious in stabilizing funds for more than a year. As one evaluative report on several youth programs concludes: "It takes a new program several months to recruit staff; with the uncertainty of the program beyond the year, many of the staff begin to think of their next job shortly after they begin to work." New financing and staffing patterns are needed in many programs to facilitate recruiting, developing, and keeping a good staff.

Increased emphasis on *staff development*—including both organized training and upgrading arrangements—is another need in many manpower programs. The development of all kinds and levels of staff—counselors, crew chiefs, coaches, administrators—is needed, as the emphasis on improving the situation of the sub-employed adds complexity to the problems with which these staff members must deal.

In the next several years *the role of private business* in manpower development will increase. Large companies have recently begun to recruit disadvantaged workers for the first time in many years. It should not be assumed, however, that these companies' experiences with higher skilled workers automatically give them competence to work effectively with the sub-employed. Indeed, a sense of uncertainty about how to deal with those difficult to place and keep on the job may underlie the refusal by many personnel officers to employ the undereducated and unskilled. The development of staff capable of working effectively with these new employees may be of special importance to the success of the JOBS Program and other efforts to expand opportunities for the disadvantaged in private employment.

Realization of the need for *special approaches in working with the sub-employed* is also growing. Many individuals require programs that offer quick movement to a job, rather than a long process of intake, referral, rehabilitation, and training. Frequently, services must be built around the job, rather than preliminary to it; this may be especially true of remedial education. In general, a visible, concrete, immediate payoff is needed to help the disadvantaged make the initial step into the program. This is no less essential than incentives to stay with the program in the hope of larger returns in the future—the issue now stressed in many programs.

An articulated, quality manpower system should make low-level entry jobs transitional for as many of the sub-employed as possible. In particular, the low-level job should be only a beginning for young workers, which they leave after a short time. Manpower programs should emphasize *development*—not just getting an individual into a low-wage job but continuing the investment in him until he can move up to a more rewarding position.

## LIMITATIONS ON MANPOWER OBJECTIVES

The possibilities of a strong manpower policy should not obscure its limits. High employment will not, by itself, resolve all ghetto unrest, though it undoubtedly can make a strong contribution. Much anger arises from the feelings of ghetto people that they are politically powerless, exploited as consumers, denied decent housing and opportunities to move to better neighborhoods, and underprotected and overthreatened by police. Reduced unemployment and higher incomes would eliminate many but not all of these feelings. Manpower policy cannot be expected to handle all the tensions of life.

Nor should it be anticipated that all the sub-employed will get decent jobs. Nor should all the adult poor be employed. The relationship between work and welfare, for example, is more complicated than many realize. Many AFDC mothers already work; getting more of them into jobs may not always be either easy or desirable.

In other words, manpower policy must go hand in hand with economic, educational, welfare, and housing policies in efforts to solve the social and economic problems of the big cities and of the sub-employed.

# 4

# BRIDGING THE GAP FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

# BRIDGING THE GAP FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

The persistence of high unemployment among young people throughout the Nation—despite the inauguration of new education, training, and job programs for youth—has led to public concern over the adequacy of the entire range of institutions that normally serve as bridges between school and work. A substantial review of the problem and much soul-searching have begun among all those in American life who have a responsibility for preparing youth for their adult activities of earning a living and raising families, or for helping them enter fields of work where they can acquire the wherewithal for productive and satisfying lives.

The problem of "bridging the gap" between school and work has been the subject of a special joint review by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare pursuant to a Presidential directive in the *1967 Manpower Report*.[1] It played a substantial part in the report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education, *Vocational Education, The Bridge Between Man and His Work*, issued early this year. The problem has also been under consideration by the Education Advisory Committee to the Appalachian Commission, and has been the subject of many technical discussions both in this country and among experts from nations of the free world meeting together at the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

This chapter summarizes current knowledge concerning the many features of the school-to-work problem, the judgments and conclusions that have evolved, and the steps suggested to deal with the situation. It also discusses the need for further analysis which is being undertaken even while program action is being considered or going forward and which will bring to bear the growing knowledge arising out of both research and operating experience.

## The Problem

The essence of the problem is reflected in the paradox that emerges from the following two propositions:

—The United States keeps larger proportions of its children in school longer than does any other nation, to insure their preparation for lifetime activity.

—Yet the unemployment rate among youth is far higher here than in any other industrial nation and had been rising sharply until the introduction of the Government's youth programs over the last 4 years.

Unemployment rates among youth, while highest for those in low-income minority group families, are substantially higher in all income groups than those considered desirable by any concept of acceptable unemployment rates that has been developed in our Nation. Thus, youth in the 14- to 19-year-old bracket from families with incomes of less than $3,000 have unemployment rates of 17.4 percent, an extraordinarily high level. But even youth from families with incomes of $10,000 and over have unemployment rates of 7.7 percent—rates that are about double the national average and quadruple the rates of adults.[2]

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[1] See *1967 Manpower Report*, page XV.

The differentials between youth and adult unemployment rates have persisted despite marked improvements in the overall employment situation. Examination of the character and dimensions of youth programs undertaken in the last 4 years, of the rise in youth unemployment rates before that, and of the demographic and economic factors at work suggests that the introduction of these special programs has been a key factor in keeping youth unemployment rates from rising even further in relation to adult rates.

The pattern of high unemployment rates among youth has become more pronounced in recent years. Though some differential between adult and youth rates has existed for decades, the gap has widened with the passage of time. The unemployment rates for youth shown by the 1930 census were far lower than the youth rates today (or at any time during the postwar period). They were only slightly above adult rates—8.3 percent for the 14- to 19-year-old group compared with 5.2 percent overall. Both 1930 rates reflect predepression circumstances. (See chart 19.)

While unemployment rates give some indication of why the school-to-work problem commands public attention, they are by no means the sole indicator of its dimensions. Unemployment rates do not reflect discouraged abstention from the job market, underemployment, or frustrating occupational misfits that may lead to quits and unemployment—problems on which there is, as yet, no adequate information. It is known that the labor force participation of young people (about 50 percent for the 16- to 19-year-old group, compared with 62 percent for those aged 20 and over) has remained relatively unchanged in recent years, despite the increasing proportion of youth in school and the increasing number of young people who have been reaching working age. This finding undoubtedly reflects the general improvement in employment opportunities. It is possible that labor force participation of youth would actually increase if their desire for employment were matched by the availability of job openings.

Underemployment is another factor in the youth employment situation which is difficult to measure. One evidence of this is the extent to which young people are able to secure only part-time employment as a result of economic factors. In 1967, 9.4 percent of the teenage full-time labor force, 343,000 young people, were working part time for economic reasons, compared with a rate of only 2.9 percent for persons aged 20 and over.[3]

The youth for whom bridges to work are now most adequate are those with the intensive preparation provided by professional training at the college level or beyond. For them, careers are virtually assured and unemployment is at or very close to minimum levels. In fact, in many specialties there are numerous opportunities open for people with professional training. But sizable proportions of all other groups of youth—high school dropouts, high school graduates, and college dropouts—face serious uncertainties as they leave the academic world and begin the work for which school was to have prepared them.

The tremendous advantage college graduates have in entering the world of work can be seen from the unemployment rates for young adults. In March 1967, for example, 20- to 24-year-olds with a college degree had an unemployment rate of only 1.4 percent, compared with 5.3 percent for those with a high school diploma, and a completely unacceptable 10.5 percent for those who had completed only 8 years of school.

Vocational preparation at the secondary and postsecondary levels has been progressively strengthened, however, under the impetus of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This act has made possible extensive improvements in both the quantity and quality of vocational education offerings, which should mean better job preparation for many youth.

The problem of building bridges between school and work involves many fundamental elements in American life in addition to educational preparation. No one institution has or can have sole responsibility for helping youth to prepare for and make the transition from school to

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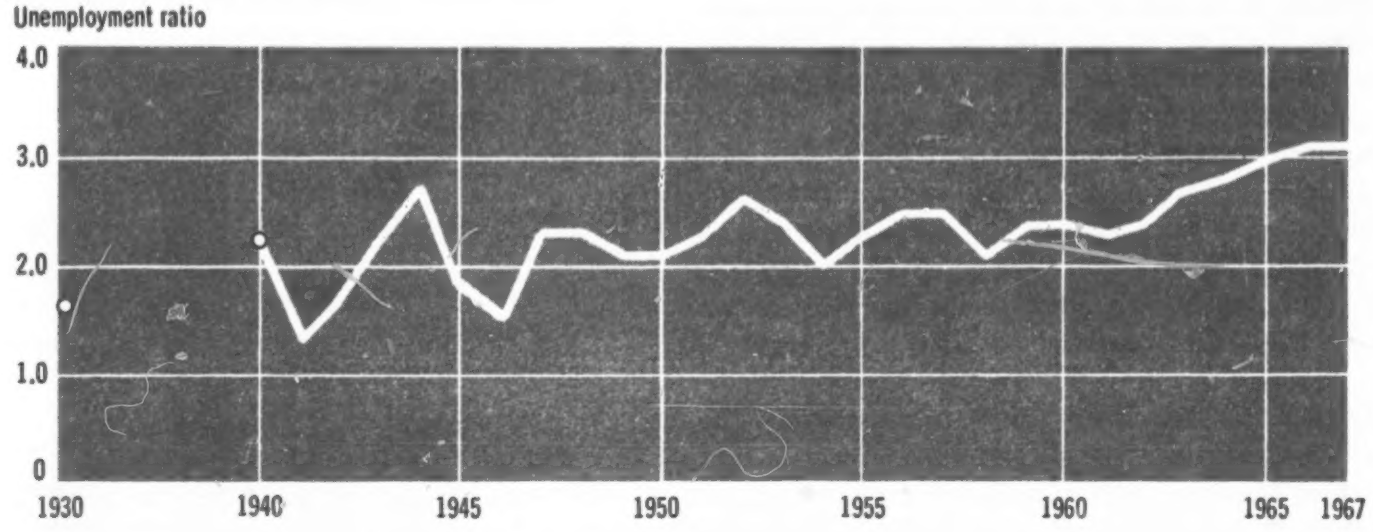
[2] These data, the latest available on unemployment rates of teenagers by family income, are available only for teenagers 14 to 19 and relate to teenagers who were family members, other than head of the family, and were unemployed in March 1967. Family income is for 1966.

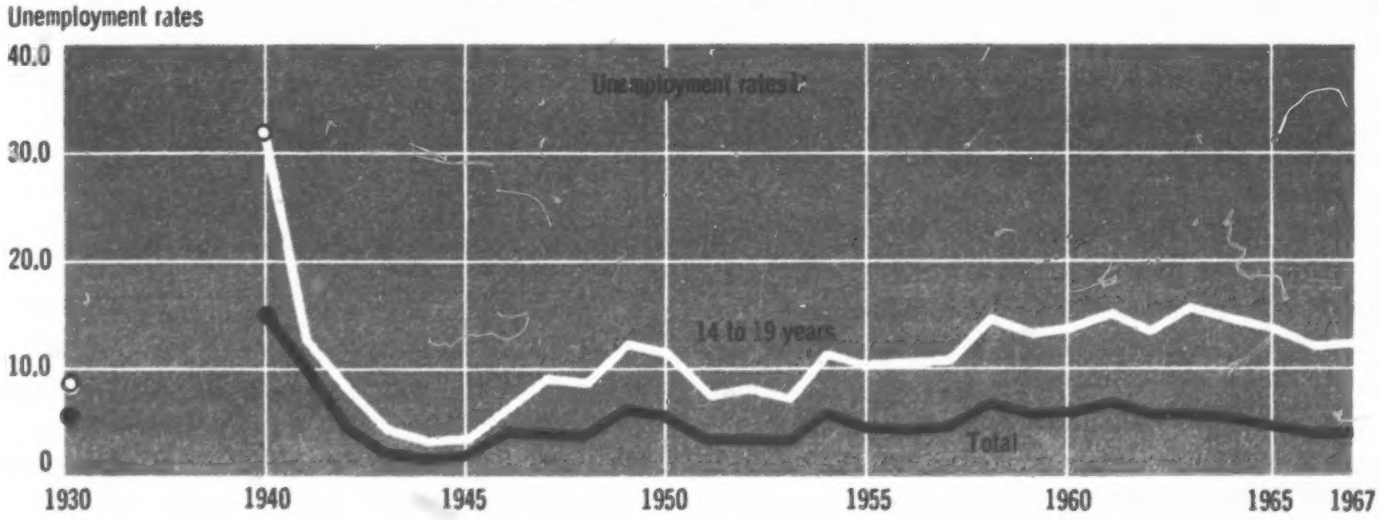
[3] The teenage full-time labor force is made up of youth, aged 16 to 19, who are working full time or looking for full-time work.

**CHART 19**

### Ratio of teenage to overall unemployment has increased...



### as declines in teenage unemployment rate have not kept pace with declines in overall rate.



1/ Pertains to population 14 years old and over.

Note: Fourteen and 15 year olds are included to maintain comparability with years prior to 1947. Rates for 1930 and 1940 are decennial census data. The 1941 estimates are October data. All other figures are annual averages. Data from 1930 to 1940 not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

work without unreasonable and discouraging spells of unemployment. Some young people get help from teachers; some get help from school counselors, especially "if they are college material" and will therefore cross into the work world with greater ease at a later point. Many are placed by the Employment Service system. Others get help from social workers, police, neighborhood centers, youth programs, or individual employers to whom they apply. Personal contact (through acquaintances, friends, and relatives), which has always been a strong feature of the job market in this country is one of the most frequent ways of finding jobs.

Parents play an important part in the process of transition (though perhaps less so today than in past years when children were more likely to follow in their parents' occupational footsteps). They are important not only in terms of their influence on the child's preparation for life, but also in terms of the contacts and associations they can open up in the bridge-crossing process. Their contributions in this latter respect are necessarily limited when they themselves have been denied opportunity, through either outright discrimination or adverse educational or economic circumstance. Children from families in the middle and upper income brackets, already the best equipped to compete for jobs, are more likely to learn of good job opportunities from their relatives and friends than are disadvantaged youth.[4]

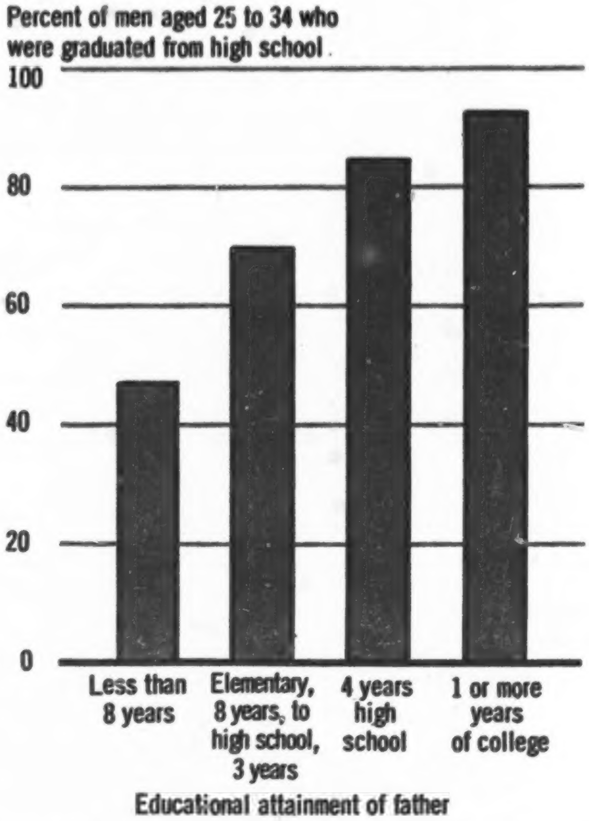
Recent studies suggest that we do not fully understand what the function of the parent is in preparing children for work, whether through education, training, or other means. Nor do we know what this parental activity contributes to the Nation's economy. The importance of parental influence in determining the ultimate place of the child in society is suggested by various census data relating the education of parents to the education of their children. (See chart 20.) Where the father had graduated from high school, about 87 percent of sons aged 25 to 34 were also graduates. On the other hand, where the father did not graduate from high school, less than 60 percent of sons in this age group received high school diplomas.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's 1966 report on *Equality of Educational Opportunity* also suggests, as one of its major conclusions, that the home environment of the deprived child can be an overwhelming impediment to his economic and social development.

The need to supplement the activities of the parents through various parent-surrogate activities such as Head Start cannot be overestimated. Services that middle and upper income families provide their children as a matter of course are all too often missing in the low-income home. The availability of adequate substitutes may help break the intergenerational chains of poverty for many children from disadvantaged environments.

CHART 20

**Proportion of men who complete high school is directly related to their fathers' educational attainment.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on March 1962 data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

## Ways of Improving the Transition Process

Perception of the school-work gap and of ways of bridging it is naturally colored by the vantage point from which it is regarded. Those involved with school administration have been concerned that the preparation given young people in school be improved so that it can ease their transition into work and reduce youth unemployment rates. Those in the manpower agencies concerned with the cadres of young people who continue to enter the labor force, from school systems that will require many years for improvement, think youth should be helped, where necessary, by new and special training facilities designed to equip them for available jobs. Those who work directly with youth in the process of transition—counseling and placing them as they graduate or drop out of school and advising them on job and training opportunities and on the special work and work-training programs open to them—are particularly concerned about improving the mechanics of the transition. Those involved with youth who are making the transition from rural to urban areas are concerned also with the problems of residence and cultural change and with the wide range of information on occupations needed by those who are leaving rural areas.

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[4] For a further discussion on this problem, see the chapter on Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged.

Indeed, a strong case can be made for a variety of approaches: (1) Improvements in the educational system and great expansion of cooperative education programs to prepare young people better; (2) special programs to take care of the approximately 6 million school dropouts expected to seek work opportunities without adequate preparation over the next decade; (3) improvements in the process of communicating occupational information to young people while they are in school and putting them in touch with jobs and additional training opportunities as they come out; and (4) improvements in early employment experience, by adding to this experience new opportunities to learn.

At the present time many high school graduates and dropouts do not receive any guidance or counseling. Eight out of 10 school dropouts have never had counseling by school or employment office officials about training or employment opportunities, and 4 out of 10 high school graduates have never had such counseling. (See table 1.) There are no school counselors at all in 13 percent of the Nation's secondary schools and in 90 percent of its elementary schools. And only Massachusetts and the Virgin Islands meet the Office of Education's basic standard of one counselor for every 300 students.

Even smaller proportions have been exposed to supervised work experience while in school. Among out-of-school youth in 1963, only 7 percent of high school graduates and 3 percent of dropouts had such work experience.[5]

The Employment Service's part-time, cooperative school program—under which regular Employment Service counselors come into the schools to test, counsel, and take applications from those not planning to go on to college—reaches about 50 percent of the high schools and about 75 percent of all high school seniors. Unfortunately, however, it reaches a much smaller proportion of the students who drop out of school, and in many cases the degree of contact with the outgoing student is far too superficial.

TABLE 1. PROPORTION OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND DROPOUTS WHO HAD RECEIVED JOB GUIDANCE OR COUNSELING [1]

| Receipt of job guidance or counseling | Percent distribution | |
|---|---|---|
| | Dropouts | Graduates |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Received guidance | 22.4 | 56.1 |
| School counseling only | 17.1 | 37.8 |
| Employment service only | 4.2 | 4.9 |
| School and employment service | 1.0 | 13.4 |
| Never received guidance | 77.6 | 43.9 |

[1] Data relate to persons 16 to 21 years of age in February 1963 who were no longer in school, were not college graduates, and were in the civilian noninstitutional population.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

In addition, occupational information reaches only a small proportion of students below the senior high school level. And visual occupational materials (films, calendars with pictures depicting occupations, etc.) still need a great deal of improvement. The *Occupational Outlook Handbook*—the Government's basic guide to occupational opportunities—should be made readily available to youth in junior high school. It is of particular importance that those youth most in need of guidance concerning job and training opportunities—the high school and junior high school dropouts—be made aware of the realities of the world of work. Proper guidance for these youth at an earlier age would promote the dual objectives of encouraging them to remain in school while helping those who are determined to drop out in spite of the odds against them.

Some notable attempts have been made to give more personalized and intensive counseling to individuals, as in schools that provide a full range of guidance services beginning at seventh grade, in the skill centers financed under the MDTA, and in the efforts of the Employment Service to deal with potential dropouts at several continuation schools. These experiences suggest that, with improved guidance materials available throughout the junior and senior high schools and intensive work by counselors knowledgeable about the practical employment situation existing for students coming out of school, some inroads can be made into present youth unemployment rates. These experiences also point to the overwhelming importance of full cooperation and joint action by the local education agencies and the local Employment Service.

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[5] These statistics relate to cooperative educational arrangements between schools and industry. In addition, since 1963, the Neighborhood Youth Corps has provided hundreds of thousands of part-time employment opportunities to poor children to enable them to remain in school. For a discussion of the NYC program, see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

Innovative experiences have also taken place under the Vocational Education Act and in special MDTA training courses that expose students to the realities of work life rather than merely to academic situations. The development of more cooperative education programs, even under academically oriented curriculums, has meant that increasing numbers are exposed to work situations that make abstractions come alive.

These experiences suggest that substantial improvements in educational curriculums and more linkages to the reality of the work world will help substantially to improve the preparation of youth. While advocates of general or college-bound preparation still argue with those who want to see more work content introduced throughout the school curriculum, there is growing agreement on several points: (1) That curriculums can generally be enriched by material drawn from real work situations; (2) that all students should be given much more information concerning career paths and opportunities, and much earlier than is now usual; and (3) that the vocational school program should offer opportunities for students with a far wider range of interests and abilities to try out vocationally oriented curriculums and go on not only to jobs but also, increasingly, to higher education—either directly or after periods of employment. In any case, the secondary education system in this country must strive to reach the point at which all youth who receive a high school diploma but do not go on to further education are adequately equipped to find and keep a meaningful job.

There have also been suggestions on other points that need further exploration. It has been proposed, for example, that the schools themselves assume increased responsibility for the actual job placement of their graduates. The exercise of such responsibility would expose the schools to industry and should result in improved and more realistic curriculums and guidance services. It is argued that it makes no more sense for the schools to be unconcerned about what happens to their graduates than it does for an automobile manufacturer to pay no attention to the sales of his products.

How this concern is reflected in new programs becomes an important matter. The Government's manpower services are already coping with some of the problems of transition by finding jobs for young people through the facilities of the Employment Service (in particular, through the Youth Opportunity Centers and the Cooperative School Program), as well as by projecting the future needs of the economy and its occupations as a base for educational, training, and curriculum planning. A potentially serious problem in having the schools handle placements is that the knowledge of job opportunities required for a satisfactory placement extends far beyond a school district or even a labor area, and calls for the information network available to the Employment Service system. Furthermore, the Government is inevitably concerned about problems of duplication and coordination that might result from newly awakened realizations of need, at a time when there are already recognized shortages of qualified personnel in both the schools and the manpower services.

Solutions to this range of problems by cooperative effort between school systems and Employment Service offices have been worked out in a number of cases and can be carried further, as they have been in other countries such as Sweden and Great Britain. In Sweden, the school system and the employment service each finances half of the cost associated with youth placement activities. In Great Britain, a cooperative relationship has been developed over many years, with responsibility allocated for both guidance and actual job placement. As part of this program, a special Youth Employment Service has been created to deal with youth both in school and as they come out seeking jobs.

# Experiences of Other Nations

The problem of youth unemployment in this country takes on added dimension when contrasted with the situation in Europe—a contrast in many ways revealing, but also in many ways deceptive.

Unemployment rates for youth in other nations, particularly the western industrialized nations, are for the most part noticeably lower than for youth in this country. Sweden and France, for example, have youth unemployment rates one-half to two-thirds lower than the American rates. English rates are far below the American ones. While part of this difference can be attributed to a generally tighter European labor situation, a major factor is the highly developed man-job matching apparatus. The youth employment situation in these countries is apparently characterized by a relatively quick entry of youth into jobs following school, an extensive training structure, and a great variety of "apprenticeable" trades through which youth can make a start in the world of work.

In assessing these seeming successes, one should keep in mind that there are some basic structural differences between these countries and the United States—a fact that makes it very difficult to choose what would work as well here. For one thing, the percentage of youth receiving vocational education is much higher in Europe than in the United States, where in 1963–64 only about 19 percent of the 14- to 17-year-olds received vocational education. This contrasts to a range among countries recently studied by the Department of Labor, which begins at 21 percent (of the 14- to 17-year-olds) in the Netherlands and extends up to 58 percent (of the 15- to 17-year-olds) in West Germany.

These figures reflect a heavily structured status system for entry into jobs—the kind of system that has been traditionally rejected in the United States. Here, the ultimate educational goal—still not fully realized—is to open the broadest and highest level of opportunity for everyone. But this goal is far from being accepted in the countries of Europe. This very aspect of the European practice, moreover, is now a source of dissatisfaction in the European nations themselves. Serious review is underway in several countries with respect to their educational systems, what they lead to, the limited opportunities they afford to youth, and the limited lifetime real incomes that result. Part of this review has been occasioned by concern over inadequate economic growth and the inability of the nations to cope with U.S. and other foreign drains upon their professional and technical manpower resources.

Contrast with the European situation, perhaps more than any other single factor, suggests that the school-to-work gap in the United States is the result in part of the high educational and flexible career sights that have been set here. The contrast also points up the general failure—as reflected at least in the U.S. teenage unemployment rates—to bring reality to as high a level. This means that the essential task posed by the school-to-work problem in the United States is how to create a bridge that would bring youth into jobs more directly, and thus reduce their unemployment rates to acceptable levels. But the problem also involves getting them into jobs that are not below their potential, that are not routine jobs into which they are forced for lack of any alternative. The problem is how to make real the now unfulfilled promise of the American educational and opportunity systems.

The much higher educational sights for youth here than abroad are reflected dramatically in the differences in how long youth attend school. In the United States nearly 94 percent of all 14- to 17-year-olds are in school, as compared with a range of 56 to 65 percent for the same age group in several European countries. In recent years, however, a number of these countries have planned to raise the age level for compulsory education. Austria has introduced a ninth year of required schooling; Belgium plans to extend its school-leaving age to 16 by 1968; and Sweden recently extended schooling to age 16. France is lengthening required schooling from age 14 to age 16 as of 1968, and the French Planning Commission envisions that, by 1970, 40 percent of all 17-year-olds will be in school. The United Kingdom is also contemplating an extension from 15 to 16 years of age.

Along with much earlier ages of entry into employment, Europe has created a markedly different wage structure for youth than for adults, as discussed later. But keeping these basic differences in mind, there is still benefit to be gained by sifting the various approaches to the transition problem existing in these countries. Following are summaries of a few of these approaches in the various areas that have a critical impact on the school-to-work transition.

## VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

Where vocational guidance is most extensively practiced in Europe, the manpower agency has a key role. In Sweden, the Government instituted a national program of vocational guidance and training in 1947. And in the 1950's most of the larger local employment service offices provided guidance for persons under 18 years of age in special youth departments, which also were responsible for placements. Since then guidance and placement functions have been largely separated. Beginning in the sixth grade, teacher-counselors with special training provided by the National Labor Market Board assist young people in choosing a career. Their services in the schools are funded 50 percent by county school boards and 50 percent by county labor boards—demonstrating the close cooperation between the educational authorities and the manpower agencies in preparing young people for work.

The Swedish program also provides for prevocational practical orientation in the eighth year of school. This involves a 3-week period of observation and work for pupils, who visit plants and business establishments to become acquainted with the conditions they may expect to encounter in their future careers, and to obtain a basis of personal experience for their career choice.

In West Germany all vocational guidance is carried out by the Federal employment service and its local agencies. In 1966 more than 84 percent of the school leavers received individual counseling. Where training in the chosen occupation is not locally available, a vocational guidance service can provide youth with financial assistance to go where training is given.

In the United Kingdom, talks to groups of students by the Youth Employment Officer, who works for the Youth Employment Service, begin in the 4th year of secondary school. The system of informing students about vocational matters also includes evening lectures by visiting speakers and the use of career displays.

In Austria, there are three sources of vocational counseling services—trade unions, employers, and the government. There is a central Government youth placement office with a special section for vocational counseling. In cooperation with school authorities, these vocational counseling services establish contacts with youth in the schools.

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The character of vocational education varies considerably among European countries. Small countries such as Belgium, the Netherlands, and Sweden find vocational education in school best suited to prepare youth for work, while larger countries with more diversified production, such as Western Germany and the United Kingdom, find in-plant training better suited to their needs.

Perhaps the most significant recent trend in vocational education in Europe is that the training is becoming broader. Training for a "spectrum" of jobs has been proposed in the United Kingdom. While much of Europe has traditionally used formal apprenticeship in its training of skilled workers, the present trend is toward a broader, general educational background and wider, less specialized training. This educational pattern, designed to help workers adjust to the skill demands of modern industry, is much closer to the American approach of general training applicable to different kinds of jobs.

## YOUTH WAGE POLICY

Differentials between youth and adult wages are common in Europe, whereas wage differentials based on the worker's youth alone are virtually unknown in the United States.

Among those countries for which information was recently obtained by the Department of Labor are Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. These countries have a variety of wage scales for young workers, usually in particular industries and occupations, which are lower than those for adult workers. The so-called "youth wages," where established, are generally well accepted by employers, unions, parents, and workers.

Most collective agreements in Belgium provide for lower wages for persons under 21. Only by way of exception do some agreements provide for equal pay for equal work regardless of age.

The French legal minimum wage provides for reductions applicable to workers under 18 years of age, according to the following scale:

| *Age group* | *Percent reductions from regular minimum wage, 1964* |
|---|---|
| 14 to 15 | 50 |
| 15 to 16 | 40 |
| 16 to 17 | 30 |
| 17 to 18 | 20 |

In the Netherlands, individual industry agreements set lower rates for young people. Different wage rates apply for each year of age from 14 to the specified adult level, which varies according to the industry. For example, the wage for a Job Class I adult worker, aged 23, in the metal industry in 1964 was f 1.79 an hour. The rates for young workers between 14 and 22 years of age in the same job ranged from f 0.48 to f 1.65. At 18 years of age, the rate was f 0.90 an hour.

In Sweden, special wages for youth in the 16- to 23-year-old range are established through collective bargaining. The wages vary according to the person's age, sex, skill, the industry, and the cost of living. The minimum wages set by the various wage councils in the United Kingdom provide for lower pay rates for young workers—usually from ages 15 to 21 for males and 15 to 18 for females. The specified youth rates increase up to those for adults by yearly or, in some cases, biannual steps.

## Some Further Questions

A wide range of additional questions bearing on the school–work transition requires intensive review.

An important one that needs to be resolved is the extent to which the present youth unemployment situation results from an unusually high rate of youth entrance into the labor force. There is some evidence, for example, that the proportion of new young entrants in the labor force may be greater here than in European countries, and that this has some bearing on the wide differences in youth unemployment rates between this country and Western Europe. But even if this proves to be the case, the implications for the problem at hand will still need exploration. It has been suggested that the numbers of American youth reaching school-leaving age may be greater than the economy can absorb. Whether this is a question of relative numbers of youth and jobs, or of the kinds of preparation that youth must undergo, or what special measures and special kinds of training may be needed is an important matter to resolve.

A related question is the extent to which the present situation partially reflects the reduction of low-skilled or entry jobs in the United States, particularly when compared with the situation in Europe. Careful technical observers of U.S. plants and those in western European countries have often commented upon the relatively large proportions of unskilled labor in many European plants. Whether this factor would make any difference in entry opportunities for youth, given a growth in the *number* of jobs open to young people, is a matter that requires further investigation. The answer to this question may be particularly significant in throwing light on the methods needed to solve the school-work problem in the United States, in contrast to the solutions that have existed in Europe under a different and—in terms of the United States level of productivity—an outmoded stage of technological development.

The technology question is, of course, closely related to questions that are frequently raised regarding the extent to which the youth employment problem might be a reflection of the increasing minimum wage level in the United States. This matter has already been reviewed to some extent but needs further exploration.

The analysis that has been made to date indicates quite clearly that the minimum wage alone cannot be held responsible for the high rates of youth unemployment. What is needed is an exploration of the degree, however slight, to which the minimum wage may contribute to the problem; and, to the extent that this is the case, whether there are in fact any practical possibilities of meeting the problem through wage action.

In the U.S. economy, generally rising wage levels have both reflected and spurred productivity gains, which are usually achieved by paring man hours per unit of output through more effective utilization of manpower and the introduction of more efficient equipment. In the analysis done to date, it has been found difficult to separate the effects of the minimum wage from the entire process by which productivity and wage levels have moved upward together. The minimum wage is only one aspect—and a minor one—of a complex process which needs a great deal of further analysis. In fact, increases in minimum wages have generally trailed behind increases in the general wage level. As productivity and wages rise, routine or low productivity jobs—some of them held by youth—are often eliminated. This is, however, a process affecting the entire economy, where the great majority of workers have wages far above the minimum. In fact, in most parts of the country, particularly in urban job markets, the wages of large proportions of young or beginning workers are already at or above the minimum wage level.

Further examination of this question will call for the application of more sophisticated methods of separating the foregoing factors than have been feasible thus far. Such methods are needed for analysis of the kinds of jobs youth hold, of the possibility of expanding the number of such jobs under circumstances of generally rising productivity, of the desirability of doing this, and of trends in employment and job orders.

Such an analysis should be directed especially at the practical possibilities for opening jobs in the future. It is essential to be realistic about the extent to which changes in wage levels alone would significantly increase jobs available to youth in an economy with other strong forces at work, such as the hiring standards of employers, the constantly rising levels of wages, and wage and promotional expectations. Particularly important would be an examination of the circumstances under which such opportunities could be developed—whether adjustments in youth wage levels would, by themselves, have an appreciable effect upon the development of youth jobs or whether additional special incentives would have to be provided. Consideration should be given, for example, to payment of training costs, and the further extension of cooperative school-work programs linking education and work experience.

These latter programs, where established, have often led to the successful placement of young people in employment and have given youth the opportunity to explore different types of job possibilities while still in school, rather than through an uncertain search for jobs after school. However, the numbers of students in such programs have been rather small thus far. And a review is now underway of the factors that have limited this type of program—including problems arising in the schools, in achieving industry acceptance, relating to competition with other workers, and resulting from laws and administrative arrangements that limit the employment of youth.

Exploration is needed also concerning the policies, practices, and attitudes of American employers toward the hiring of youth. In a cost-conscious economy, it is likely that increasing proportions of employers have become accustomed to accepting into employment only workers judged to be sufficiently mature, experienced, and capable of "carrying their weight" in a productive activity. Only recently, as the Nation's urban crises have escalated, have employers begun to review their policies in this regard, and to reassess their role with respect to employment of people who—whether because of youth or of other disadvantages—are regarded as not being able to carry their full load, temporarily or permanently. It now appears that it may be increasingly necessary to finance the special costs of training and preparation that employers would have to undertake in employing people who do not meet their established standards. But it is by no means clear what this means with respect to the incentives, if any, that may be needed to induce employers to employ inexperienced youth in sufficiently large numbers to erase the heavy problems of youth unemployment.

Employers in the United States rely heavily on the school system to educate young people in basic skills presumed to be needed for work and—except for the small group of apprentices—do little to insure that the schools actually prepare students for the world of work. They respect the competence and independence of educators, though they often complain about the products they get from the schools.

Schools and employers at this point have similar value systems. The student who drops out, gets low grades, or gets in trouble with the police is in trouble both in school and in getting a job. This creates a circular process: when schools and plant employment offices close doors, they also help to break down self-confidence, and this, in turn, makes it difficult for a youth to overcome the special barriers he faces. Employers naturally prefer experienced and mature youth. High school graduation and school achievement records, as well as minimum age requirements, are generally used for sorting out those who, it is assumed, would not be satisfactory workers. Fragmentary evidence from Employment Service orders indicates that jobs in the United States are as tightly closed to youth on the basis of chronological age as they are to older persons. Whether better methods can be found for judging and developing maturity (a matter that is becoming more and more important in approaches to training) and overcoming lack of experience is an additional question that needs exploration.

Much further study is needed, as well, of the kinds of preparation given to youth, in relation to the kinds of jobs they actually obtain. At this point, data on the relation of education to later work experience are limited to the general relationships between levels of education, parental support, and lifetime or eventual earning capacity. There is as yet no valid information on the more subtle relationships important for the development of public policy and programs—between amount and quality of schooling, kinds of curriculum, and extent of counseling or guidance, on the one hand, and success in overcoming the initial hurdles to job entry on the other. To some extent the longitudinal studies of school and work experience now being sponsored by the Department of Labor, under the Manpower Development and Training Act, and other studies sponsored by the Office of Education will illuminate this question. But more detailed analysis of linkages between particular kinds of school experience and first entry into the job market will be needed.

Whether high unemployment rates for youth will continue because youth is trying out, and can afford to try out, a variety of jobs is another question to be explored. Past explanations of high youth unemployment have often tended to emphasize the "trying out" character of the process. Clearly, job quits contribute to youth unemployment to some degree, but such "voluntary" unemployment in itself needs further assessment. To the extent that this reflects youth searching for job experience, the question might well be raised whether this searching—and the development of realistic expectations concerning the need for preparation—could not be made a part of the education process. At present, this searching occurs at a time when young people are on their own and their education is presumed to have been completed. The in-and-out process between education and work now takes place only in a limited number of situations, such as the Antioch plan.

At the high school level, it would be useful also to gage the impact of part-time employment, while the youth is in school, on his ability to adjust to regular employment once he is out of school. Perhaps a more extensive program of part-time jobs for youth who are in school but who do not plan to pursue higher education would be fruitful, building upon the findings and achievements of the Neighborhood Youth Corps' in-school program. Programs of this kind should provide valuable work experience and make the youth more aware of the intricacies of the job-finding process—an awareness which should prove useful to him when he is seeking full-time work after leaving school. In addition, the experience a youth gains on a part-time job makes it more likely that an employer will hire him for full-time employment.

An examination is needed also of the extent to which initial job tryouts by youth reflect inefficiencies in the way they seek jobs and in the various institutions and agencies that help them, rather than "inevitable" dissatisfactions with particular job opportunities. To some extent, it is the present high family income levels in the United States, compared to those in other countries and in generations gone by, that permit many youth the luxury of "shopping around" and trying out jobs. Related to this question, of course, is the need for an assessment of the extent to which "disenchantment with work" plays a role in youth unemployment rates and for an examination of the particular groups in the population to whom this factor is applicable.

Also needed is an examination of the extent to which youth unemployment rates could be reduced by spreading high school graduations over the year. At the present time 97 percent of high school graduates in the United States leave school within the same 2 or 3 weeks in June. The heavy load that this puts upon public and private employment offices and upon the personnel offices of companies might well be diminished, and greater inroads made into youth unemployment rates, if the load were spread throughout the year. There has been little realization or awareness of the extent to which the adjustment of high school schedules over the last few generations has resulted, more and more, in uniform graduation times and has perhaps contributed to the youth unemployment problem. There has been no exploration of the practical possibilities of reversing this process, nor of the extent to which such reversal might help in alleviating youth unemployment.

Beyond the explorations discussed above, there are a number of further questions that need to be considered:

1. From the standpoint of the immediate employment of students not going to college, as well as their adaptability to occupational changes over their work careers, which kinds of curriculums are most effective?

2. How much and what kinds of direct individualized help in making an occupational choice and in finding a job do students need while in school, and as they leave?

3. To what extent can the transition be eased by school curriculum changes and by increasing the knowledge about the work environment youth have while in school?

4. What are the present "world of work" curriculums and to what extent do they reach those who will not be going to college?

5. What do freshmen, and also seniors, in high school know about the kinds of jobs available—how much they pay, what are the opportunities for advancement, what is the economy of their community based on, what services are offered by the Employment Service, and so on?

6. Which schools in the United States provide instruction on the nature of the local economy, the jobs available and what they are like? Which ones are good examples that might be used as prototypes for this purpose? And what success have they had?

7. How much contact do students have with industry? To what extent are there arrangements for visits to plants and lectures from plant officials? How significant and useful would these be?

8. What is the role of industry in the training process? This role is now under significant development as announced by the President in his special message to the Congress on January 23 and under additional exploration by the Task Force on Occupational Training of the Departments of Labor and of Commerce.

## Conclusions

Many of the matters discussed have been under review in the joint study undertaken by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare. While it is recognized that a great many of the factors mentioned need much further exploration, certain general conclusions can be reached on the basis of present knowledge concerning the character of the steps that can be taken to narrow the gap between school and work:

*Increasing knowledge about the environment of work while in school*

1. We can insure that every schoolchild has more knowledge about the world of work than is now the case.

> —Preparation for occupational selection should begin not later than the junior high school level because of the social, emotional, and physical changes taking place in the students at this time. This should be a process of increasing knowledge—not of forcing premature decisions.
>
> —There is need for professional and subprofessional counseling far beyond that which now exists, curriculum revision and new curriculum materials to begin the process of world-of-work exposure, and vast expansion of knowledge about work through teaching aids, television, or direct exposure to real-life occupational situations.

2. Whatever one concludes about the merits of broad versus occupationally oriented education, it is clear that more occupational curriculums offered at high school and post-high school levels should be expanded. These curriculums should be based on the "broad cluster" concept, as part of broad-based education, to permit both the opening of more options than are now available and the prospect of career ladders in these options.

*Increasing opportunity for young people in school to gain actual work experience*

1. Even before entry into the job market, the student should have maximum opportunity to explore his abilities and preferences in the real world. The tryout period should take place during school years rather than afterward. There should be a vast expansion of cooperative work opportunities that will open new horizons. Work experience, in fact, should become a meaningful part

of preparation for career development and life at several stages of youth—not only at the final professional internship stage. The interaction of classroom instruction and practical exposure should be planned to develop the highest level of capacity possible for each young person at the time of his entry into the job market, whenever that occurs. These work activities should be accompanied by supportive counseling—the kind of counseling that may well be the most important in the practical process of launching youth on a career.

2. The great desire of young people to be involved in meaningful activities in our Nation should be matched by expanded development of opportunities for voluntary service, both during school years and afterward. Academic credit should be given for such activity, and the Nation's voluntary organizations should be assisted to develop such opportunity.

*Increasing participation of business and other private groups in the education world*

1. There should be vastly more involvement of people from the working world (businessmen, supervisors, labor officials, professionals, and Employment Service and other public servants) in the process of education—through exchanges of various kinds, or simply the direct contribution of the time of personnel.

2. There should be vastly more two-way interchange—especially over summers or other vacation times—between professionals in the world of education and the world of industry and employment.

3. There is a need for industry to develop new forms of training, and new kinds of training for supervisors, in the techniques of introducing young people—including disadvantaged and minority youth—into the new world of work. For too many youth, this world is one of unsympathetic supervisors and fellow workers. Such programs could involve educational upgrading in plants, placing school personnel in plants, and use of various forms of educational release time, with resultant lessening of dependence on school classrooms as the sole places of organized instruction.

*Improved knowledge and training at the point of entry into the job market*

1. At the point of entry into the job market, whenever that may be, the student should have access to a full range of skills supporting his placement, with adequate time devoted to his individual case, and with supporting personal contact continuing through several months of initial job placement, where necessary.

2. The full range of manpower services should include supplementary training and job experience of whatever kind is necessary to insure successful entry into the job market. In many areas, especially isolated ones, residential facilities will be required to collect a student group of sufficient size to warrant a full range of offerings.

3. The time of entry into the job market can be delayed, with profit to the individual and a reduction in youth unemployment, if adequate training bridges are provided (of which the current Department of Defense pilot efforts are examples).

*Finally, two broad considerations that affect all of the foregoing*

1. Putting the Nation's secondary schools on a year-round basis, and having their graduates enter the job market in three or four groups rather than all at once, would make the process of absorption much easier.

2. The efforts undertaken should be directed at *all* of the Nation's youth—so that efforts to build better bridges for the youth of poverty families, for example, will be part of efforts that reach all youth who each year line up at the inadequate bridgeheads.

On February 5, 1968, the President transmitted to the Congress a message on education entitled "The Fifth Freedom." In that message, the President called for the enactment of The Partnership for Learning and Earning Act of 1968, which has been introduced in the Congress. This new act would do much to streamline and strengthen our vocational education laws. "Above all," the President stated, "we must build stronger links between the schools and their students, and local industries and employment services, so that education will have a direct relationship to the world the graduating student enters."

The new act would provide $15 million for special experimental programs to bridge the gap between education and work, to build alliances between schools, employment services, and private employers; and provide new summer training programs combining work and education. This legislation would enable experimentation in devising solutions to the kinds of problems discussed above. Through these experiments we can look forward to creating models for broad application throughout the Nation.

# 5

# GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN EMPLOYMENT AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

# GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS IN EMPLOYMENT AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

Economic progress in this country—with all its vast geographic and economic diversity—almost inevitably leaves in its wake areas and even regions which not only fail to share in this progress but are adversely affected by the processes of change. The consequences are now plain to see in many depressed rural regions and blighted urban centers.

This is not to derogate the need for continued rapid economic progress in the country generally. National economic and employment growth is the essential foundation for progress in both lagging and prospering geographic areas. But direct efforts will also be required to speed the economic redevelopment of many distressed areas; to provide improved education and occupational training, health and welfare services, and better living conditions for their people; and probably also to facilitate and guide the continued migration of workers from depressed areas to centers of economic growth.

These objectives are already being pursued through a combination of Federal, State, and local government policies and programs, in alliance with private industry and other nongovernmental leadership. The variety of problems faced by communities and individuals throughout the country dictates a variety of remedial efforts, which generally supplement and reinforce one another. But this diversity also means that a specific program may pursue a particular goal at the cost of progress toward another. For example, if depressed areas are developed by public investment in facilities to attract new industries, this may be at the expense of growing areas with less immediate need for additional jobs but where a similar investment might add more to the national output of goods and services. Or programs to facilitate migration from depressed areas and thus help unemployed workers to get jobs may take the most potentially productive manpower from these areas and thereby weaken their potential for redevelopment.

Economic and manpower policies and programs must take into account these divergent objectives and interests, difficult as this may be. A specific program may be aimed at one limited objective, but the program combination must have much broader goals. It must seek both overall economic and employment growth and a reduction of present interarea and intergroup inequities in employment opportunities and levels of living. And it must consider future potentialities as well as problems clamoring for immediate attention.

The geographic areas of concern have similarly broad scope. They include not only depressed and lagging regions and areas but also growing ones with large numbers of unemployed, impoverished people.

Some of the country's lagging areas show actual declines in opportunities; others, although growing somewhat, consistently fall behind the United States as a whole in their ability to provide improved prospects for workers and business. Many of these lagging areas are relatively small—labor areas or country towns which are unable to attract industry, develop their public services, or give their workers adequate education and training. However, some are large regions—including cities as well as rural areas—crossing

State boundaries, yet lacking the resources, industry, and skills required for economic growth.

These lagging regions and areas have generally been hard hit by past recessions in economic activity and have benefited unevenly—sometimes not at all—when business conditions improved. Thus, a process has been established whereby these parts of the country tend to fall further and further behind in their ability to provide employment for their workers. Since the people who leave depressed areas in search of better opportunities are generally the young and those with the most education and skill, the areas lose their most valuable human resources. This loss further impedes the development of new economic opportunities.

The central need in such depressed regions and areas is usually for programs aimed at discovering their economic potential and promoting their output and employment growth. Given financial and other help in their redevelopment efforts (and sometimes even without such help), labor areas with high unemployment have often demonstrated a capability for economic growth which reversed their previous decline. Within the large depressed regions, small cities have been identified as potential growth centers; it is hoped that these can be developed as employment and service centers for surrounding distressed rural areas.

Improved educational and training programs aimed at developing workers' skills are an essential part of these redevelopment efforts. Furthermore, since some out-migration of workers from rural and other lagging areas will continue to be necessary, another manpower objective must be to guide the migrants to areas of employment opportunity and help them adjust to urban jobs.

The growing areas of the country also include large numbers of workers and potential workers who do not share in the general prosperity. Many urban and rural areas are increasing their overall capabilities for providing improved standards and amenities of living—but not for the unskilled and otherwise disadvantaged, especially those who are nonwhite or members of other ethnic minority groups. Even in rapidly growing areas, the increase in job opportunities may not keep pace with the increase in numbers of workers, owing to natural labor force growth and an inflow of migrants from other areas. This paradoxical situation is most common and most extreme in the large metropolitan areas, where workers in central city slums may have unemployment rates many times higher than those for residents of the surrounding suburbs. These slumdwellers are barred from available jobs by many factors (discussed in the chapter on Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged). They often lack the education and skill required for available jobs, are likely to have serious health problems, and may not be able to arrange or afford transportation to the expanding job opportunities in the rings around their central cities.

This chapter reviews some of the geographic dimensions which must be taken into account in planning and evaluating employment and manpower development policies and programs. It briefly describes the employment problems and potentialities of both urban and rural America, and also discusses the broad regions and smaller labor areas now recognized as distressed and in special need of development assistance. Since the migration of workers and the location of industry are basic determinants of the employment situation in every part of the country, the factors influencing migration and the choice of plant location are outlined. Also discussed are the major Government programs now aimed at economic renovation of distressed and lagging regions and areas, and a number of other Federal Government activities which have important geographic effects on employment, unemployment, and other manpower problems. In the concluding section, some suggestions are made as to the issues which must be confronted in working toward an equitable and effective geographic approach to employment and manpower development.

A wide variety of manpower programs oriented to the different needs of workers in specific areas is clearly called for. These programs must be joined by other public programs aimed at economic and social development in the areas involved. Programs to increase private as well as public investment, to guide and possibly to stimulate migration, and to improve education, health, and social services will be required for a full solution to the problems facing distressed areas and their people.

# Some Geographic Dimensions of Employment and Economic Development

## URBAN AMERICA

Urban areas are the site of most of the Nation's employment and industrial activity and the home of nearly three-fourths of the population. They are the locale of the country's greatest affluence and some of its most critical problems of unemployment, poverty, and social and physical decay.

The intensity of the problems in urban areas is a direct result of these areas' long record of successful functioning as centers of economic and cultural growth. Traditionally, they have been the places where people could find desirable occupations and raise themselves out of poverty. And urban areas have also integrated group after group into the mainstream of American life.

Partly because of this past record of urban success, people from rural areas continue to migrate to the cities seeking work and better wages. Those without the skills and background required for urban employment are at a severe disadvantage. The increasing urban congestion resulting from this migration and from natural population growth strains the limited financial and other resources available for improving the urban environment.

Differences in employment opportunities and problems, as well as modes of living, are vast, of course, between residents of large metropolitan centers and those in smaller urban places, ranging down to 2,500 population. And disparities are likely to be even greater between suburban residents and the people of their central city and its slums.

Disparities in employment, income, health, education, housing, and other social factors among different groups within the urban population are among the most serious problems of our time. Aggravated by their association with color, race prejudice, and rising expectations, these disparities are the root of increasing crime and urban unrest.

In inner-city slums, unemployment is not only high—three times the national average rate in some cases—but also persistent.[1] Many workers have earnings below the poverty level. And the available evidence suggests that economic and social conditions, as well as the physical environment, are getting worse, not better, in many slums.

The efforts already underway to increase the employment and employability of slum residents are, therefore, a first necessity,[2] as is the rehabilitation of slum neighborhoods, through the Model Cities Program (discussed later in this chapter) and other public and private efforts.

But the repair and revitalization of central city neighborhoods is only part of the answer. Each urban area should be considered in its entirety, so that economic, social, and financial relationships can be established among the separate neighborhoods in the city and suburbs. The best hope for a real solution to inner-city problems of unemployment and poverty, and for renewed economic progress in urban areas as a whole lies in this direction.

### Metropolitan Areas

Two-thirds of the country's population (about 125 million in March 1966) live in metropolitan areas.[3] Increasing metropolitanization has been one of the basic factors in the country's economic development. Since the beginning of this century, well over three-fourths of the increase in the U.S. population has been accounted for by the growth of metropolitan areas. This growth was intensified during the 1950's and has slackened only moderately since then.

The concentration of industry and population in metropolitan areas is greatest in the Northeast and North Central regions but has been rising more slowly there than in other parts of the country. Between 1950 and 1965, metropolitan area population growth amounted to only 20 percent in

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[1] See *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 74.

[2] See the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs for a discussion of these programs.

[3] See Current Population Reports (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, December 16, 1966), Series P-20, No. 157. Standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's) are defined as places that contain at least one central city with at least 50,000 population, plus the county of the central city and any adjacent counties that are metropolitan in character and economically and socially integrated with the county of the central city. As can be seen from the following 1960 population data, most, though not all, of the people within SMSA's live in urban places, whereas most of those outside SMSA's are in rural areas.

| | *Population in 1960 (thousands)* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Type of residence* | *Total* | *Inside SMSA's* | *Outside SMSA's* |
| Total | 179,323 | 112,885 | 66,438 |
| Urban | 125,268 | 99,562 | 25,706 |
| Rural | 54,055 | 13,323 | 40,732 |

the Northeast and 32 percent in the North Central States, compared with more than 50 percent in the South and over 70 percent in the West. (See table 1.)

A region is likely to grow fast when its metropolitan areas, which are the centers of economic activity, are growing fast—implying that it is the metropolitan area growth which determines a region's growth, and not the reverse.[4] However, in some regions with a high rate of out-migration from rural areas, metropolitan area growth may reflect mainly the inflow of people from other parts of the same region.

A variety of economic factors has contributed to the growth and concentration of population, employment, and economic activities in metropolitan areas. Among these are the availability of many public services, lower transportation costs on finished products (metropolitan areas constitute the bulk of the national market for goods and services), the cost savings made possible by many specialized business services, the availability of a large pool of manpower with varying skills, and the feasibility in such areas of large-scale production and distribution—with all the economies this makes possible. When metropolitan concentration goes too far, however, it gives rise to numerous disadvantages—chief among them land scarcity, traffic congestion, and relatively high labor costs—which offset part of the economic gains.

Metropolitan areas have grown faster than the national average not only in population but also in employment and income. Differences among metropolitan areas in employment growth, as in population growth, reflect differences in industrial structure and potential.

Manufacturing is particularly important as a source of employment in the great metropolitan belts of the New England, Middle Atlantic, and East North Central (Great Lakes) regions. In the

TABLE 1. POPULATION OF STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY REGION, 1950 and 1965[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

| Region | Population | | Change, 1950–65 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1950 | 1965 | Number | Percent |
| Northeast | 32,917 | 39,380 | 6,463 | 19.6 |
| New England | 7,408 | 8,877 | 1,469 | 19.8 |
| Middle Atlantic | 25,509 | 30,503 | 4,994 | 19.6 |
| North Central | 26,589 | 35,084 | 8,495 | 31.9 |
| East North Central | 21,093 | 27,801 | 6,708 | 31.8 |
| West North Central | 5,496 | 7,284 | 1,788 | 32.5 |
| South | 20,871 | 31,890 | 11,019 | 52.8 |
| South Atlantic | 9,670 | 15,723 | 6,053 | 62.6 |
| East South Central | 3,873 | 5,034 | 1,161 | 30.0 |
| West South Central | 7,329 | 11,133 | 3,804 | 51.9 |
| West | 14,160 | 24,365 | 10,205 | 72.1 |
| Mountain | 2,144 | 4,153 | 2,009 | 93.7 |
| Pacific | 12,016 | 20,212 | 8,196 | 68.2 |

[1] Population data for 1950 and 1965 cover 214 identical SMSA's defined by the Department of Commerce as of 1967. These include some areas that were not classified as SMSA's in 1950 or 1965, but that by 1967 had attained such status. For New England, 12 State economic areas and 2 counties were used. These include the 23 officially defined SMSA's in New England. The consolidated metropolitan areas of New York–Northeast New Jersey, Chicago–Northwest Indiana, and Los Angeles–Orange County were included as individual areas.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Housing and Urban Development, based on data from the Department of Commerce and other sources.

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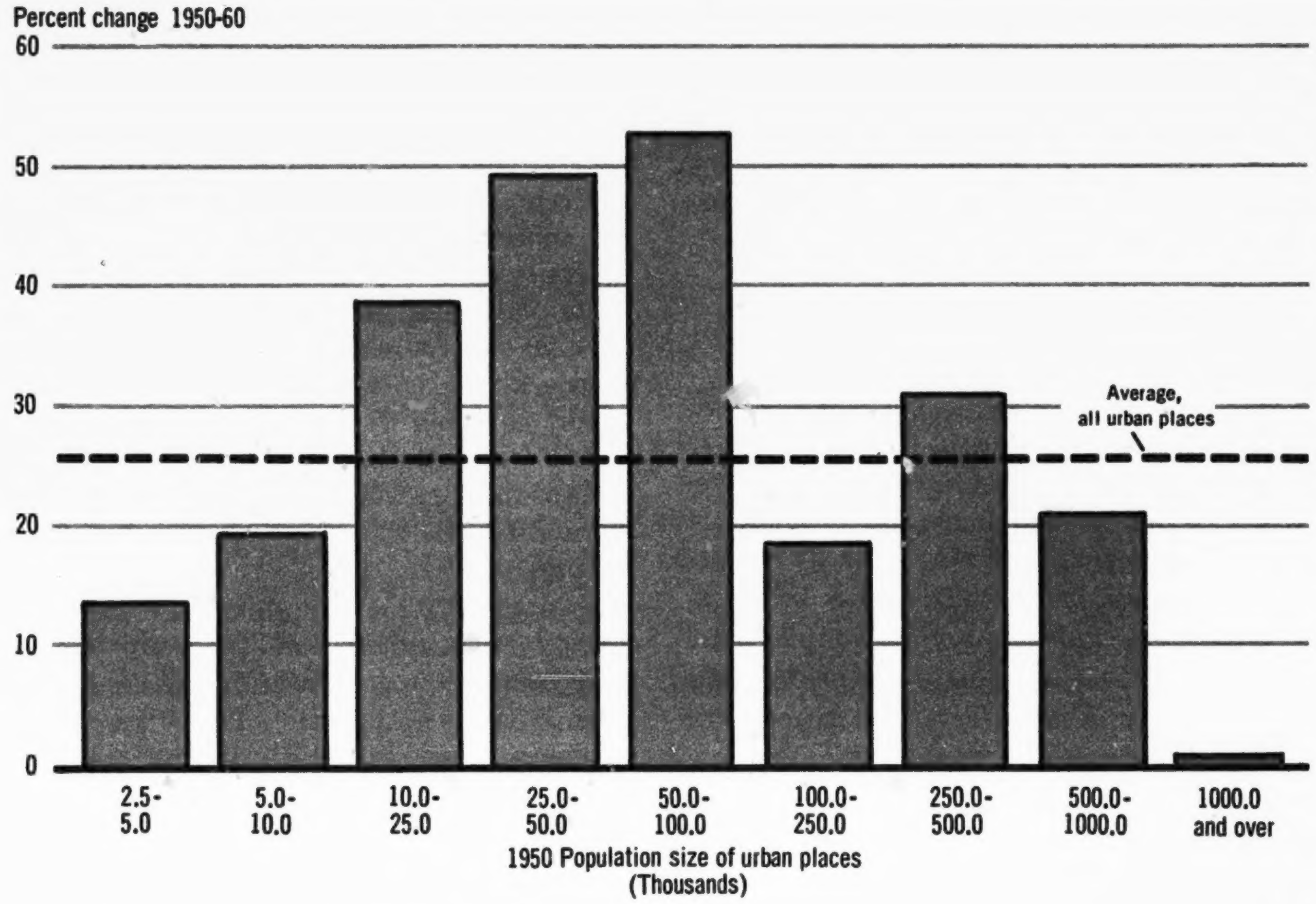
[4] See Joe Won Lee, "Dimensions of U.S. Metropolitan Change," *Looking Ahead* (Washington: National Planning Association, June 1967), p. 2.

CHART 21

**Middle-sized urban places had fastest population gain during the 1950's.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

West and South, metropolitan growth rests on a more diversified employment base; in a number of areas trade, service, and government are the major employers.

As the size of metropolitan areas increases further, more and more of these areas will attain the kinds of production efficiency associated with having their own manufacturing and other production facilities, rather than importing goods and services from other areas. This could lead to still greater concentrations in large cities and increasing disparity in locational advantages between large and small urban areas. Thus, the trend toward location of businesses and therefore of jobs within large metropolitan areas is likely to continue. However, there are also elements of inefficiency which increase with city size. One way used by business to combat these inefficiencies has been the selection of locations outside the central city—in the suburbs, in nearby cities within the urban complex, or even in new towns. This trend of course intensifies the already severe economic and employment problems of central cities and their residents.

Within a wide range of city sizes (excluding the largest and smallest), economic opportunity—as measured by earnings and rates of unemployment and labor force participation—tends to improve as the population increases. In the largest cities (above all, in their central sections), unemployment rates are generally higher and labor force participation rates are lower than in medium-sized cities. Hourly earnings, on the other hand, are typically highest in cities with over 1 million population. They tend to be about one-sixth higher there than in cities with less population, and one-fourth to one-third higher than in nonmetropolitan sections of the same region.[5]

Cities of all sizes are growing, but at dissimilar rates. (See chart 21.) In general, the medium-sized cities (especially those with 10,000 to 100,000 population) appear to be growing faster than either large or very small ones. However, many cities in the middle-size groups are close to some large, dominant city or within a city complex—suggesting that the trend is towards large urbanized complexes.

### Central Cities and Suburbs

The major problems of unemployment and poverty in cities are inner-city problems. In many old inner-city areas, rundown loft buildings, warehouses, and other structures are found alongside dilapidated tenements and single-family dwellings, now occupied mostly by Negroes or members of other ethnic minority groups. Employment opportunities in these areas have declined drastically, particularly in manufacturing, as industry has increasingly abandoned its old, rundown quarters and followed—in some cases, preceded—the general movement of the more affluent population and business to the suburbs.

By all the measures customarily used as indicators of economic well-being and potential for improvement—income, education, health, skills, unemployment, family cohesion, crime, housing conditions, and so forth—the people living in central cities are, on the average, substantially worse off than those living in the suburbs.[6] Of the 58 million persons in central cities, almost 10 million, or 16 percent, were poor in 1966. By comparison, there were only 4.5 million poor living in suburbs—not quite 9 percent of the suburban population. In other words, the incidence of poverty in the central cities is almost twice as great as in the suburbs. (See table 2.)

Approximately a quarter of the people in large cities now live in neighborhoods characterized by high unemployment, low income, or low levels of educational attainment, according to a recent report covering 27 cities prepared for the Economic Development Administration.[7] The magnitude of the slum unemployment problem is also indicated by other findings (discussed elsewhere in this report).[8]

Surrounding the real slums in many cities are "gray" areas, where conditions are less serious only because the deterioration process has not yet gone as far as in the slums. These "gray" belts are stagnant areas, with little if any new develop-

TABLE 2. PERSONS WITH 1966 INCOME BELOW POVERTY LEVEL IN URBAN AREAS IN MARCH 1967[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

| Location | Persons at all income levels | | Poor persons | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent distribution | Number | Percent distribution | Percent poor |
| Total urban | 136,072 | 100.0 | 18,786 | 100.0 | 13.8 |
| Outside SMSA's (Small cities) | 25,422 | 18.7 | 4,773 | 25.4 | 18.8 |
| Inside SMSA's | 110,650 | 81.3 | 14,013 | 74.6 | 12.7 |
| Central cities | 58,422 | 42.9 | 9,487 | 50.5 | 16.2 |
| Other urban areas[2] | 52,228 | 38.4 | 4,526 | 24.1 | 8.7 |

[1] Data on urban population are as of March 1967.

[2] Estimated allocation.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Based on data from the Office of Economic Opportunity.

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[5] Victor R. Fuchs, *Differentials in Hourly Earnings by Region and City Size, 1959* (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1967), Occasional Paper 101.

[6] This generalization is examined by Marjorie C. Brazer in "Economic and Social Disparities Between Central Cities and Their Suburbs," *Land Economics*, August 1967. According to this study, there is considerable diversity among metropolitan areas in the extent to which their economic and social characteristics differ as between the central city and the remainder of the area.

[7] See *The Research Review* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Economic Development Administration, December 1967), p. 7.

[8] See the chapter on Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged. The programs undertaken by the Department of Labor to meet central city problems are discussed in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

ment. Sometimes spreading into older suburbs, they are candidates for further serious decay, unless this trend is quickly arrested. If measures to improve residential areas and provide increased employment opportunities for their residents could be expanded in these presently salvageable areas, the tremendous social and financial costs of later slum clearance could be avoided. However, most of these areas are not attractive for large-scale private investment in construction and renewal without government help.

Another critical city problem is the increasing need for public services, at the same time that the exodus of industry and of well-to-do families to the suburban rings has left the central cities with a deteriorating tax base. Faced with this dilemma, cities have either had to raise their tax rates, with the effect of stimulating more firms to leave the central city, or furnish services inadequate to the needs of their residents, especially the poor. Since the more broadly based revenue sources tend to be appropriated by the State and Federal governments, localities have increasingly looked to their State capitals and to Washington for help.

While the central city problem is most acute at the present time, it is clear that many suburban areas, particularly the older ones, are facing similar problems to an increasing extent. Thus, the problem of central cities cannot be viewed in isolation from the rest of the metropolitan areas. Solutions can be found only if it is recognized that the bypassed groups in the central city must be brought into the mainstream of metropolitan life.

Most of the metropolitan area population growth is taking place outside the central city. And so is most of the employment and business growth. From 1954 to 1965, almost two-thirds of all new industrial buildings and over one-half of all new stores were constructed in the rings of metropolitan areas. In the same period, 45 percent of community investment (in schools, hospitals, and so forth) occurred in the suburbs.[9]

The substantial amount of new business attracted to the suburbs has, of course, been paralleled by huge increases in employment opportunities. As table 3 shows for 12 large metropolitan areas, wage and salary employment has been growing 2½ times as fast in their rings as in the areas as a whole. And the differential between suburbs and central city is even greater. New employment opportunities have been opening up rapidly in the suburbs in nearly all industries, but especially services, finance and allied industries, and trade.

The suburban explosion has brought many problems to suburbia. First came those of financing public facilities of all kinds, ranging from schools to roads. Later came decisions about the type of growth to be encouraged, as commercial establishments and, still later, manufacturing plants and distribution firms followed the trend to the suburbs. It is only now that the suburban and the central city problems are being viewed as relating to the same interrelated economy.

A major issue in this regard is the intraurban discrepancy between the location of jobs and the location of residences, with special reference to the dilemma of people who live in central city slums. As already suggested, the movement of business and industry to the rings can be expected to con-

TABLE 3. PERCENT CHANGE IN PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT IN 12 STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS AND THEIR RINGS, BY INDUSTRY GROUP, 1959 TO 1965 [1]

| Industry | Percent change, 1959–65 | |
|---|---|---|
| | Total, 12 SMSA's | Rings |
| All industries [2] | 12 | 30 |
| Contract construction | 18 | 31 |
| Manufacturing | 4 | 15 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 14 | 19 |
| Retail trade | 15 | 39 |
| Wholesale trade | 8 | 46 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate | 14 | 55 |
| Services | 30 | 55 |

[1] Excludes government workers and the self-employed. Employment in the ring is estimated from employment outside of the county in which the central city is located. The 12 SMSA's are: Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Dayton, Detroit, Indianapolis, New Orleans, New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C.

[2] Includes agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and mining, not shown separately.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, based on *County Business Patterns* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1959 and 1965).

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[9] Dorothy K. Newman, "The Decentralization of Jobs," *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1967, pp. 7–9.

tinue. Stores and other consumer-oriented businesses will go on moving to suburban locations where buying power is concentrated. Research-oriented industry will continue to find suburban locations more congenial than the central city. Industry requiring skilled workers may increasingly find that its labor force, having prospered sufficiently to be able to afford a residence in the suburbs, may also prefer to work there. Household employment opportunities will continue to grow in suburban areas.

There are, of course, countervailing forces tending to arrest the trend toward suburban locations. While land costs may be cheaper than in the central cities, the need to provide parking spaces, lunchrooms, and other facilities commonly available in the central city greatly increases demand for space in suburban operations. Moreover, less active real estate markets in the suburbs may make changes in corporate requirements more costly to undertake than in the city. Also, initial tax advantages may be whittled down considerably in future years as suburban public service needs, partly induced by industrial and commercial inmigration, continue to expand.

Improved transportation facilities would ease the difficulties of commuting to work, now a problem both for central city residents and suburban businesses. It is illusory, however, to think that faster and cheaper transportation connecting the suburban and central city areas, important as it is, would solve the basic urban issue.

The urban area is not only a job market, but also a public service area, a local housing market, and increasingly, in its central city portion, a ghetto. Negroes constitute one-fifth of the total central city population and one-fourth of the people in cities of more than 1 million, but only 4 percent of the inhabitants of suburbs. Among nonwhite families (chiefly Negro) in large cities, the proportion in poverty areas was still above 60 percent in 1966, though substantially lower than in 1960 (77 percent).[10] And it is not only nonwhite people, but whites as well, who are confronted by the economic and physical deterioration of the cities.

Faced with these problems, urban programs must be addressed not only to transportation facilities, but also to public and private job creation in the ghetto areas; improved, low-rent, and open housing; rebuilding of such public facilities as sewage systems, water supplies, hospitals, libraries, and playgrounds; high-quality general education; manpower training and vocational education; and job opportunities with expanding horizons for youth. And even this list of urgent issues by no means exhausts the roster of needs confronting the cities and their people.

### Nonmetropolitan Urban Areas

With so much attention being devoted to the growth of metropolitan areas on the one hand, and the problems besetting rural America on the other, the Nation's smaller cities and urban areas are sometimes in danger of being overlooked. However, over 25 million urban Americans—about one-eighth of the Nation's total population—lived outside the metropolitan areas in March 1967. The nonmetropolitan cities and towns are dotted throughout every region and range from somnolent sites of past activity to places showing vigorous economic growth.

Population has grown in nonmetropolitan urban areas as a whole—most noticeably since 1960, when the pace of metropolitan growth slackened somewhat. The actual growth rate is obscured, however; when cities pass the 50,000 limit, they acquire metropolitan status, and they and their people are no longer counted in the statistics for nonmetropolitan areas. Typically these smaller cities attract in-migrants from surrounding rural areas, while they lose out-migrants to the burgeoning metropolitan centers.

Obviously, the workers in smaller cities face varied problems, depending on the size of the community, its regional location, demographic and economic makeup, and its proximity to larger metropolitan areas. Many smaller cities are developing as active trade centers for their areas and, in the Northeast and North Central regions, as manufacturing centers.

Lately, however, manufacturing has tended to be attracted to areas outside its traditional locations and is expanding into medium-sized and smaller urban places, particularly in the South but also in other regions. The principal, though by no means only, attraction of these places for manufacturing enterprises has been the availability of a relatively low-cost and trainable labor supply. This factor has been important in the location of plants in some small cities in Pennsylvania and northern New England. It has also been evident in many small cities in the South Atlantic region and, more recently, in smaller cities in the East and West South Central States.[11]

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[10] See *Social and Economic Conditions of Negroes in the United States* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October 1967), BLS Report No. 332 and Current Population Reports, Series P–23, No. 24, pp. 8, 10, and 93.

For a discussion of the poverty area classification system, see chapter on Barriers to Employment of the Disadvantaged, p. 84, footnote 3.

Starting often with factories utilizing local raw materials (for example, in the food processing, tobacco, lumber, paper, and furniture industries), these smaller areas then attracted textile mills and, later, apparel plants. More recently, chemicals, leather, and metal fabricating plants and some portions of the electrical machinery industry have settled in many medium-sized and smaller centers, though often in their suburban belts.

Cities in the medium-size categories are sufficiently numerous in most rural regions to make commuting to them practicable for large numbers of people and enable them to play a role as growth centers. This role will become more significant as housing and community facilities are improved. In addition to the expansion in manufacturing, the establishment of new colleges and universities has aided the growth of many small cities. While genuine "new towns," as distinct from bedroom communities, are still rare, their development would make a promising contribution to employment growth in their regions, besides providing new residential opportunities.

At a time of increasing metropolitan tensions and widespread rural poverty, the future of smaller cities and of the people who work and live there looks reasonably secure. But imaginative leadership will be required to capitalize on these cities' locational advantages and insure their continued employment and industrial growth.

## RURAL AMERICA

"Rural poverty is so widespread, and so acute, as to be a national disgrace, and its consequences have swept into our cities, violently." [12]

The plight of rural people, so described by the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, is the result in large part of the tremendous advances in farm technology and productivity. The technological revolution in agriculture has, for many decades, been forcing farmworkers either off the farm or into underemployment and poverty.

In the past, migration from the farms has improved the economic conditions of most who have left. However, a substantial proportion of these people probably do not do as well as the majority of people in the areas to which they migrate. Some migrants return to the farms after being unable to make a satisfactory living in the cities.

Increasing numbers of farmworkers depend on nonfarm employment to supplement their incomes, although their ability to do this of course depends on the availability of job opportunities nearby. High levels of business activity and a high demand for workers in the nonfarm economy are important also, since they accelerate out-migration from the farms, reduce the return flow, and help provide temporary and part-time jobs for farmworkers. Neither migration nor nonfarm employment provides a solution, however, for those who have the greatest need—the large number of low-income people who cannot leave the farm because of age, ill health, or other special handicaps.

Furthermore, the problem of rural poverty is not merely—or now even chiefly—a farm problem. Although the incidence of poverty is lower among rural nonfarm than farm residents (19 compared with 23 percent in 1966), the total number of poor people in the nonfarm areas (8.7 million) exceeds those on farms by more than 3 to 1.

By no means all rural areas are poor or declining, however. Well over three-fourths of the rural nonfarm population is not in poverty; the gap in per capita income between rural and urban areas is narrowing; and, taken as a whole, rural areas are not losing population.[13] Between 1950 and 1960, nearly one-sixth of all rural counties absorbed not only their own natural population increase but some net in-migration as well. This fact of recent growth in some rural areas is one reason for confidence in their potential for future growth, given programs to stimulate development of rural resources plus training and other programs to develop rural manpower.

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[11] Based on research findings of the National Planning Association, Washington, D.C.

[12] *The People Left Behind* (Washington: President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, September 1967), p. ix.

[13] The rural population and employment remained about the same from 1940 to 1960, but this reflected declines in the farm sector and offsetting gains in the rural nonfarm sector.

A successful rural manpower policy must be cognizant of the differences among the rural residents, as well as among rural areas. Improving skills and education will be particularly beneficial for the young who have the greatest potential for migration. Improving manpower and social services and developing job opportunities in rural communities will be of great benefit to those who prefer to upgrade their living standards without migrating.

There is another question which also arises. Urban congestion is mounting, urban costs are rising, and the gap between urban aspirations and urban achievements is widening. Is the Nation destined to continue these trends or are there alternatives? Specifically, do rural areas, with their extensive land and recreational resources and thousands of small cities and towns, offer such an alternative?

### The Rural Population, Its Employment and Income

In March 1967 about 57 million persons resided in rural America, a figure that is slightly higher than it was in 1950.[14] People living on farms constitute only a minority of rural residents; in fact, the rural nonfarm population at 47 million outnumbers the farm population by 4 to 1. What has happened is that a very large decline in the white farm population has been more than offset by the larger increase in the number of white people in rural nonfarm areas. At the same time, the nonwhite farm population also has declined sharply, but the nonwhite out-migrants have settled mostly in urban rather than rural nonfarm areas.

Years ago, the proportion of minority group members in the rural population was much higher than in the urban population, but migration has now greatly reduced this difference. However, in addition to a large Negro population in the rural South, rural areas contain the great majority of American Indians and a significant, though rapidly declining, proportion of Mexican Americans.

The age structure of the rural population differs from the urban population in ways that have a direct bearing on rural problems. The higher rural birth rate results in a very high proportion of young people below 18 years of age. The heavy out-migration of young adults has meant that these age groups (ages 18 to 45, and especially ages 18 to 35) are underrepresented. On the other hand, the rural population includes a relatively high proportion of older people living on farms as well as in rural nonfarm areas.

In general, the growing numbers of rural nonfarm residents either commute to work in nearby cities or find jobs in new or expanding local industries—chiefly in manufacturing and not in the traditional rural industries (farming, mining, lumbering). However, rural people are handicapped in seeking nonfarm jobs by their relatively low level of education.[15] Many of them are able to find only blue-collar or service jobs. By 1960, blue-collar workers (skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled) had replaced farmers as the largest rural occupational group, but many rural workers with limited education can qualify only for the lower skilled, lower paid nonfarm jobs.

The difficulties many rural workers face in obtaining adequate employment are not reflected in differentially high rates of unemployment (in 1960, their unemployment rate averaged 5.3 percent compared with 5.1 percent for urban workers). The pervasive problem for rural workers is underemployment in terms of irregular work and low earnings, rather than total lack of work. The extent of rural underemployment is difficult to measure. Its magnitude is suggested, however, by the estimate that if the rural labor force had been utilized as efficiently as was the labor force of the country as a whole, the money income of the Nation in 1965 would have been increased by some $10 billion.[16] The incidence of underemployment is undoubtedly greater among farm than rural nonfarm workers, owing mainly to the seasonal and erratic nature of agricultural work.

Reflecting this extensive underemployment, rural incomes lag far behind those of urban residents, even after making full allowance for income in kind received by farm residents. The average cash income of a farm family was about 60 percent of that of an urban family in 1960 (the inclusion of income in kind would increase this percentage somewhat), while nonfarm rural residents averaged about 85 percent of the average urban income.

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[14] The rural population is defined as persons living on farms or in communities of less than 2,500.

[15] For a discussion of the educational attainment of rural residents, see *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 109.

[16] Ibid.

Altogether, about 11 million rural Americans (or one-fifth of the rural population) lived in poverty in 1966, according to the Office of Economic Opportunity. But this is not the whole story. Levels of living in rural areas all too often compare unfavorably with urban conditions. Educational facilities, health services and medical facilities, and social and cultural activities are severely limited in many rural areas. Housing conditions, too, are often bad. Thus, even provision of job opportunities would not be sufficient to shut off the tide of rural out-migration, especially as young people everywhere tend to be restless in search of better opportunities. But economic development may be expected to reduce the flow, and it is the prerequisite for the provision of more adequate services of all kinds.

The development of more jobs in rural areas is particularly important for those rural residents who are "boxed in" because of age, ill health, or other problems. The Department of Agriculture has estimated that almost two-thirds of all rural "poverty" families were in this situation in 1959—unable to leave farms or find nonfarm jobs, whatever their needs or desires in the matter.

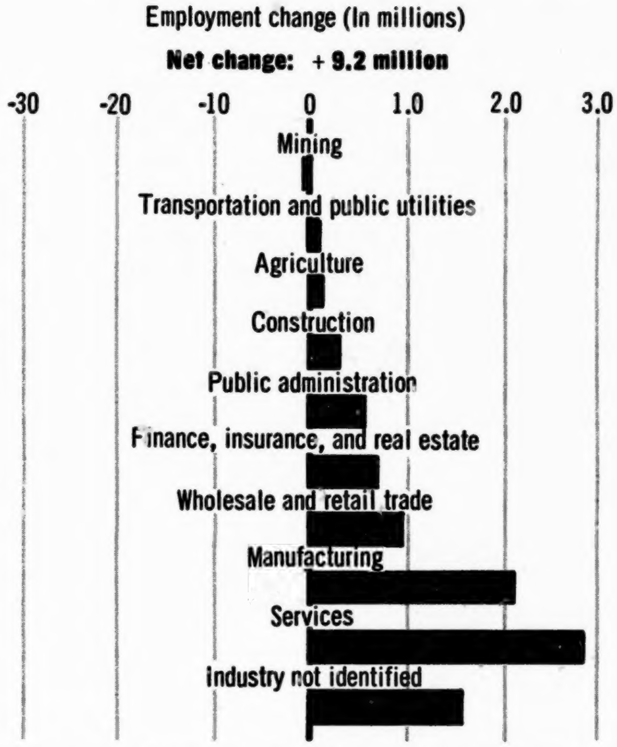
### Rural Industry

In 1967 only 3.8 million persons were employed in agriculture, a 50-percent decline over the postwar period. Similarly, most mining activities, extremely important in many rural areas, have had great declines in employment over the years, although this decline may be leveling out now. Construction has provided relatively few additional jobs in these areas. And employment in transportation and public utilities, on balance, has risen only slightly; the gains in some industries within this group have been offset by declines in railroad employment, which have been relatively sharp in rural areas. Employment increases in rural as in urban areas have been concentrated chiefly in manufacturing, services, and trade. (See chart 22.)

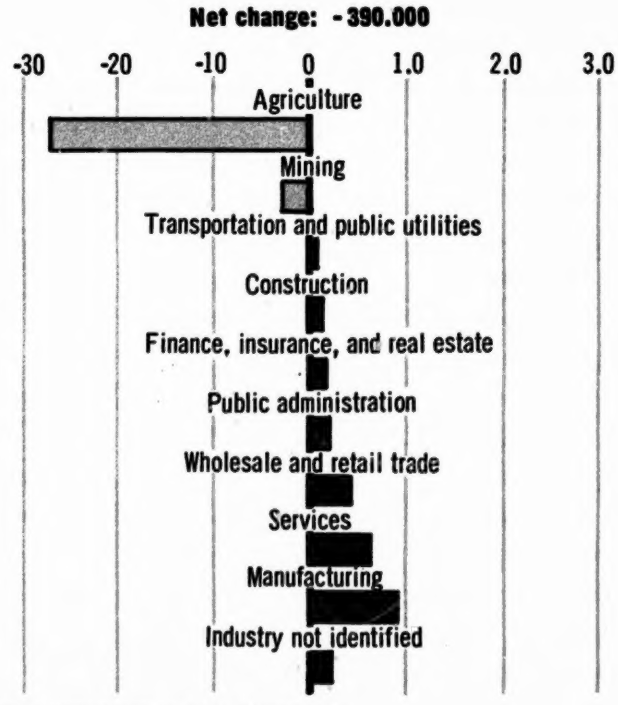
In most rural counties which have enjoyed economic and employment growth, this expansion has been sparked by manufacturing activities. However, some counties bordering on metropolitan

CHART 22

**Almost all industries increased employment in urban areas from 1950-60...**



**but in rural areas declines in agriculture and mining more than offset gains in other industries.**



Note: Data based on place of residence.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

centers have prospered by serving as bedroom communities, though they have also benefited from some industrial growth. Almost invariably, rural growth counties have access to good transportation facilities. When such counties also have unskilled but trainable people willing to work for competitive wages, their chances of gaining manufacturing enterprises, particularly of the labor-intensive kind, are relatively good. Some industrialists are attracted by what has been traditionally characterized as the "work attitudes" of the rural labor force. In addition, special financial and tax incentives of various kinds have become increasingly common in areas wanting to attract industry.

Industrialization cannot be expected in every rural community, however. It is likely that such development will be strongly dependent on growth centers, particularly small or medium-size cities, which would offer a reasonably full range of public services to attract industry and offer promise of healthy economic and employment growth. Locations with less than 10,000 population may have to offer an exceptional combination of advantages to be successful in gaining new enterprises. The size of the available labor supply is extremely important, and many rural areas simply do not have a large enough force of trained or trainable workers and potential workers—even after taking into account the often extremely wide range of rural commuting, which may extend to a 50-mile radius if roads are adequate.

Growth centers could also serve as focal points for all kinds of trade and service activities in surrounding rural areas, and as centers for educational and government activities, which could provide an increasing number of job opportunities to rural residents.

A very important spark to rural growth in some locations has been provided also by military installations. According to estimates by the Department of Agriculture, over half of the rapidly growing rural counties affected by such installations have been in the South, but examples occur in all parts of the Nation. Many bases employ large numbers of technical and other civilian personnel and have an impact on their area similar to that of industrial plants or research laboratories. Though some bases, such as training camps, employ fewer civilians, they all have some effect—and usually an important one—on the economy of nearby communities.

Although the establishment of military bases and defense plants has benefited many rural areas, these developments do not necessarily confer long-term economic and employment advantages unless accompanied or followed by the growth of industries unrelated to defense activities. Unless this diversification can be achieved, reductions or shifts in military expenditures could result in severe economic hardships for communities left stranded by the closing of military bases or defense plants. However, in a number of instances in the past, organized local efforts and Government assistance in providing new employment opportunities have resulted in economic adjustments within a reasonably short time.

Educational institutions, many of which are located in small cities and towns, have also stimulated economic growth in a sizable number of rural counties. Recreation and retirement activities have been another important source of employment and economic strength. These activities have been particularly important in areas with a mild climate or exceptional scenic beauty. Recreational facilities require considerable investment before yielding significant returns even in areas well endowed with these special attractions, and they do not appear to have as much income- and employment-creating potential as manufacturing plants. However, demands for educational, recreational, and retirement facilities are likely to persist, and areas able to capitalize on these trends should continue to achieve above-average growth in production, employment, and income.

### Rural Development

Economic and employment development in rural areas thus faces many diverse problems, depending on the area concerned. By and large, counties on the fringe of metropolitan areas face a bright future. Other areas are less fortunately situated. For some people in these areas—especially youth—out-migration may be the only solution, while those unable to migrate will need an array of welfare services.

For many areas, the provision of better transportation facilities will permit more intensive economic development. Such facilities will also help to bring more rural areas within commuting distance of growth centers, where new industry can be established and needed public and social services supplied. Thus, rural residents could be provided with access to the educational, health, and cultural amenities available in nearby urban centers.

Within the next 20 to 30 years, the establishment of entirely new growth centers, as well as the expansion of some existing small towns into growth centers, is likely. At present there is little agreement concerning the optimum population size of such centers. Much will depend on local conditions. Sizes of 50,000 to 500,000 population or more for new centers have been mentioned. However, for many areas, growth centers with 10,000 to 50,000 people may be adequate. If such growth centers can offer a variety of needed economic, educational, and social services for their surrounding rural areas, they are likely to be effective instruments of rural modernization and employment opportunity in most regions of the United States.

A whole array of public and private measures will be needed to transform the potential demand for the workers and other resources available in rural America into effective demand by private industry. Such measures will include a strengthening of transportation facilities and public services of all kinds, including improved education and training of rural residents. Investment grants and loans, tax advantages, and other special incentives to industry may also be necessary to activate the vigorous growth potential that lies dormant in so many rural communities.

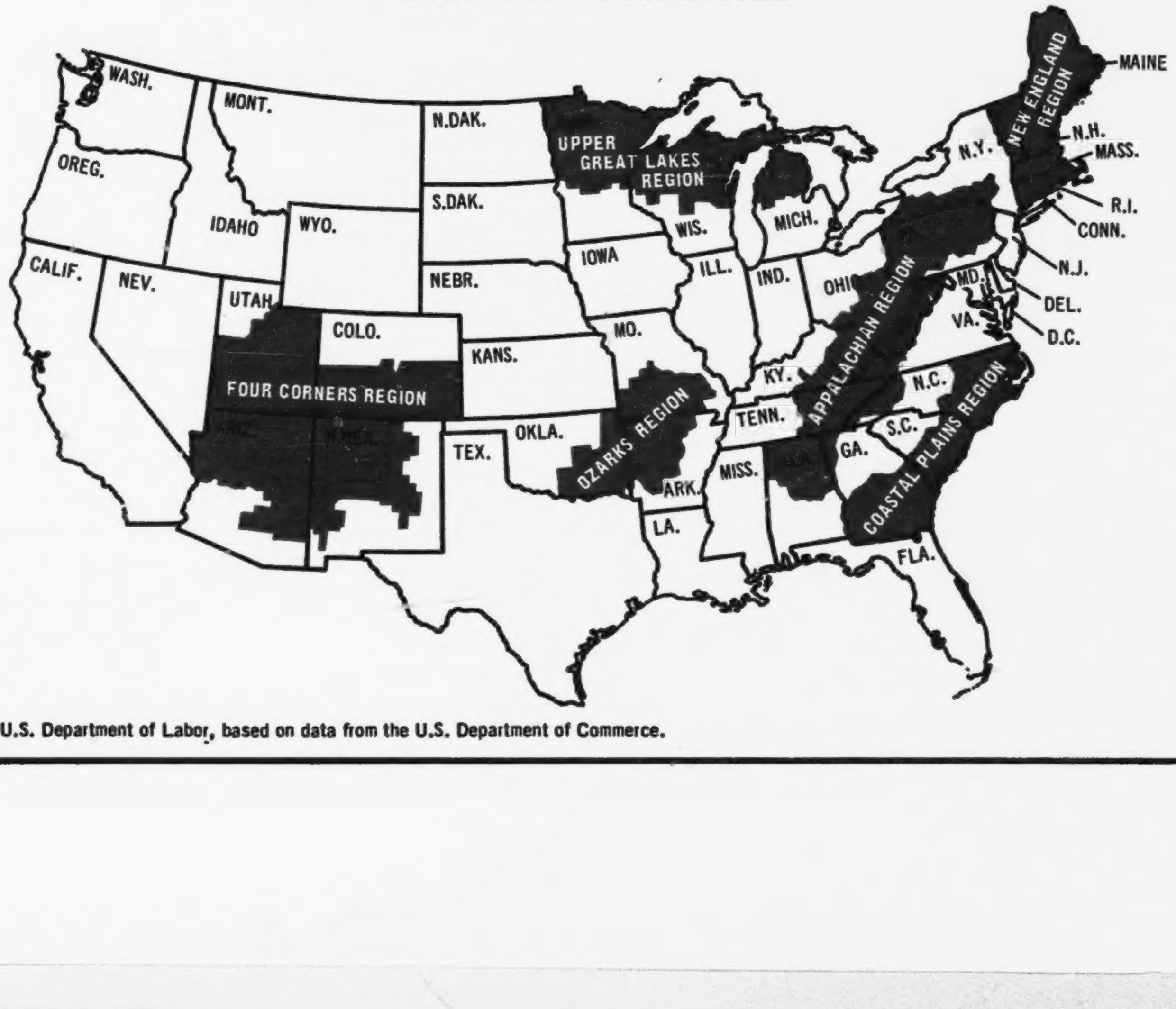
## DEVELOPMENT REGIONS

A number of predominantly rural regions with pervasive problems of joblessness, underemployment, and poverty have long been identified. All of these transcend State boundaries, so that a concerted attack on their problems frequently requires a multistate effort.

Regional Development Commissions now have been set up for six regions, in explicit recognition of these regions' urgent need for development assistance. (See chart 23.) The programs of these commissions are discussed later in the chapter.

CHART 23

Six development regions aim to revitalize employment and economic conditions.


WASH.
OREG.
CALIF.
NEV.
IDAHO
MONT.
WYO.
UTAH
COLO.
ARIZ.
N.MEX.
FOUR CORNERS REGION
N.DAK.
S.DAK.
NEBR.
KANS.
OKLA.
TEX.
UPPER GREAT LAKES REGION
WIS.
MICH.
IOWA
MO.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
OZARKS REGION
ARK.
LA.
MISS.
ALA.
TENN.
KY.
APPALACHIAN REGION
GA.
S.C.
N.C.
COASTAL PLAINS REGION
FLA.
VA.
MD.
D.C.
DEL.
N.J.
CONN.
R.I.
MASS.
N.H.
N.Y.
NEW ENGLAND REGION
MAINE

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Some highlights of the major economic and social ills besetting each region, and of the factors likely to affect their future development, will serve to illustrate, however, the kinds of problems facing workers and their dependents in the country's least prosperous sectors.

*Appalachia*—the region for which a commission was established first, in 1965—includes parts of 12 States and all of West Virginia. Altogether, it is equal to California in size and contains 18.5 million people, or 9 percent of the Nation's population. It includes metropolitan areas varying in size from major centers such as Pittsburgh, to centers such as Charleston, W. Va. Its problems are most acute, however, in rural and semirural communities, often in isolated parts of the region.

For a long time, the region has suffered from a multiplicity of economic problems. Some of its coal mines are worked out, and many currently in production are highly mechanized and use fewer workers than before. Coal, although presently making an economic comeback, has lost its preeminent position as an energy source. Much of the region's steelmaking capacity is obsolete. Its rough topography makes agriculture a marginal endeavor for many farmers. Manufacturing operations are absent from large sections of the region, and employment in trade and service industries has grown much more slowly than in the country generally. Adequate transportation facilities are lacking, and there is considerable out-migration from the region.

The Appalachian area is more than half rural, though less than 10 percent of its people live on farms. Livestock is the region's most important farm product, but tobacco is an important cash crop in several States, as is cotton in the extreme southern part of the region.

The residents have acute problems typical of people in many predominantly rural areas—low incomes and low educational attainment. In 1960, the median years of school completed by the adult population was only 8 in Appalachia, compared with 10.6 in the United States as a whole. There is as yet little evidence of progress in raising the level of education in the region; about 7 out of every 10 children drop out of school before the end of the ninth grade.

Appalachia also has relatively fewer professional, technical, managerial, clerical, and sales workers in its work force than the United States as a whole, and relatively more operatives and laborers. (See table 4.) The median age of its workers is above the national average—undoubtedly reflecting the heavy out-migration of younger people.

TABLE 4. EMPLOYED PERSONS BY OCCUPATION GROUP, UNITED STATES AND APPALACHIA, 1960

[Percent distribution]

| Occupation group | United States | Appalachia |
|---|---|---|
| All occupations: | | |
| Number (thousands) [1] | 61, 456 | 5, 609 |
| Percent | 100. 0 | 100. 0 |
| Professional and technical workers | 11. 8 | 10. 0 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 8. 8 | 7. 2 |
| Clerical workers | 15. 1 | 11. 4 |
| Sales workers | 7. 6 | 7. 0 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 14. 2 | 14. 9 |
| Operatives | 19. 4 | 25. 3 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 5. 1 | 6. 5 |
| Service workers, including private household workers | 11. 7 | 10. 7 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 6. 5 | 7. 0 |

[1] Includes occupations reported only.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: *U.S. Census of Population, 1960.*

Depressed regions and areas are characteristically the first to feel the chill of an economic downturn and the last to benefit from a recovery. However, at a certain stage in the recovery cycle, the improvement in such areas is more rapid than elsewhere, probably because their many unemployed workers form a labor pool attractive to certain manufacturing industries when a scarcity of labor develops elsewhere. The decline of nearly two-fifths in the unemployment rate in Appalachia between 1962 and 1965 (from 8.6 to 5.2 percent), as against a decline of less than one-fifth in the national average rate (from 5.5 to 4.5 percent), is attributable in part to this cyclical phenomenon, as well as to some further out-migration.

The *Ozarks region* is one of the five for which development commissions were established in 1966. Although the region is predominantly rural, having only 14 cities and towns with more than 10,000 population, it has on its immediate periphery many of the major urban centers of the midcontinent. Farming and extraction of natural resources have been the predominant economic base of the region for several generations. Because of technological changes and market shifts, the region's labor force in recent years has suffered increasingly from both underemployment and unemployment. A high percentage of the area's young people have migrated to places where jobs were more easily obtained.

The States and localities of the region have made great efforts in public education, however, and in recent years, manufacturing has expanded rapidly in parts of the region, but not in sufficient quantity or quality, from the viewpoint of skilled employment, to solve the region's underemployment problems. The programs now being undertaken are therefore aimed at attracting higher wage industries (as discussed in the later section on Economic Development Programs).

The *New England development region*, unlike the others, is predominantly urban and of great economic diversity, though a few of the States included are heavily rural. The problems faced by rural Vermont, for example, are quite different from those of the declining textile and leather areas of Rhode Island and Massachusetts, while the new electronics plants and other growth industries established in the greater Boston area and in parts of Connecticut have little in common with the industries characteristic of other parts of New England.

Employment growth in New England has been slower than in the country as a whole for many years. Between 1961 and 1966, for example, the average annual rate of growth in nonfarm employment was only 2.4 percent, compared with a national average rate of 3.4 percent. However, the region has attracted some new industries, largely on the basis of a labor force whose educational qualifications are above the U.S. average. This has been true even in the northern States (Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine), which are still the least developed economically. Elsewhere, employment losses in declining industries, such as textiles and leather, have been more than replaced by job growth in technologically advanced industries. This process, however, has not been without its strains and stresses and has resulted in severe employment imbalances in Rhode Island, in parts of Massachusetts, and in eastern Connecticut.

New England, less than generously endowed with natural resources, has always made progress through the skills and resourcefulness of its workers. They comprise an inestimable asset on which the region can capitalize to attract more research-oriented industries and professional and allied types of employment.

The *Four Corners development region* covers large, often desolate, mountainous and arid areas on the borders of Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona. The region contains many Mexican Americans and also many American Indians—the two most impoverished, underemployed, and underprivileged ethnic minority groups in the country.[17]

The region's climate and topography make agriculture of minor importance. Its mining industry has had ups and downs but retains its importance, while manufacturing and trade and other service-producing industries (other than government employment) are but little developed.

The area has, however, considerable tourist potential, and its many unemployed workers could help to staff more manufacturing industry. But incentives would have to be substantial to induce industry to locate in what is still one of the Nation's most isolated and sparsely settled areas.

The *Coastal Plains region* comprises the coastal regions of North and South Carolina and Georgia. While manufacturing industry and employment have shown dynamic growth in these States in recent years, this growth has taken place largely in the Piedmont and Sub-Piedmont areas away from the coast.

Although there has been recent evidence of economic development (mostly in manufacturing) in the Coastal Plains region, the region still has many underemployed and undereducated workers and has traditionally been a low wage area. In addition, the sharp and continuing decline in agricultural employment has led to a great deal of underemployment and poverty, particularly among the region's large Negro population. Outmigration from the area is likely to continue even if moderate economic progress is attained.

Nonetheless, with better communications and transportation facilities and a determined effort to give its workers better training through a system of technical and vocational institutes, the region should be well-placed to attract more manufacturing industry, and this should lead to increased employment in the service industries as well.

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[17] See discussion of Equality of Opportunity in chapter on New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures.

The once prosperous *Upper Great Lakes region* is sustained largely by the mining, forestry, and fishing industries, all of which have had shrinking employment. While per capita income is low (three-fourths of the national average), the region's population of almost 3 million has an educational level that compares well with the U.S. average and is a source of strength for the future. The region is handicapped by its relative isolation from the mainstream of American life, but its adaptable labor force, its scenic attractions suitable for tourism, and a revival of its traditional resource-based industries could combine to give the area and its workers solid hope for future progress.

## LABOR AREAS

Both within and outside these broad development regions, there are a considerable number of local labor areas with substantial unemployment.[18] This is shown by the Department of Labor's classification of areas according to their labor-supply situation. The 150 major labor areas—which comprise most of the Nation's metropolitan areas—are classified monthly as having low, moderate, or substantial unemployment.[19] In addition, labor areas, cities, and counties may be designated as "areas of persistent unemployment" when they meet specified criteria.[20] Smaller and very small areas are added to the "substantial" or "persistent" unemployment categories when their situation warrants.

In December 1967, nine major labor areas and 497 smaller ones were in the substantial or persistent unemployment categories. The cities of Newark, Oakland, and San Diego have also been so designated. This classification makes areas eligible for some assistance under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 and certain other Federal programs (as discussed later in this chapter).

Under a new program designed to identify sections of cities or States with high unemployment or underemployment, the Department of Labor has so classified sections of 70 cities and parts of two States (northern Michigan and the Delta section of Mississippi). The 70 urban sections include target neighborhoods of both the Concentrated Employment Program and the Model Cities Program. Early in 1968, 16 large Indian reservations and 15 counties in eastern Kentucky were also classified as sections of concentrated unemployment or underemployment. Neighborhoods and rural sections so classified are given special emphasis in manpower and poverty programs. Moreover, companies in these areas are eligible for priority in the award of Federal contracts, provided they have made a commitment to hire disadvantaged workers.

That the unemployment situation in local areas is markedly influenced by overall economic conditions is plain from the great reduction in the number of areas classified as having substantial or persistent unemployment during the current economic upturn. From 88 in early 1961, the number of major labor areas in this category fell to only nine in December 1967 and then rose slightly (to 11 in February 1968).

The geographic distribution of these high-unemployment areas was as follows: three in California (Fresno, San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario, and Stockton—plus the cities of San Diego and Oakland), two in Massachusetts, one in Pennsylvania, two in Puerto Rico, and one in Wisconsin. With the exception of the one in Wisconsin, all of the above areas had been in the depressed categories for at least a year. Five of these areas—Altoona (Pa.), Lowell and Fall River (Mass.), and Ponce and Mayaguez in Puerto Rico—have been so classified since November 1961.

The situation in these areas suggests some of the factors that can create distressed labor areas. The problems of the California areas stem from an influx of migrants, sometimes in excess of the number the economy can absorb, plus localized cutbacks in certain defense industries. The Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Puerto Rican areas are affected by longstanding economic and technological problems. The Wisconsin area suffered from the problems of one major company. Many of the smaller depressed areas are in Alaska, whose economy has been slack for some time, and in a number of southern States which have been affected by the decline in agricultural employment.

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[18] A "labor area," as defined by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security, consists of a central city or cities and surrounding territory within commuting distance. Labor areas usually include one or more entire counties, except in New England, where towns are considered the major geographical units. Labor areas range in size from: (1) "Major labor areas," which usually have at least one central city with a population of 50,000 or more (its boundaries generally coincide with those of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas); (2) "smaller labor areas," which contain an estimated work force of at least 15,000 and an estimated nonagricultural wage and salary employment of at least 8,000; and (3) "very small labor areas," whose population and employment are less than "smaller areas," but which have a population of at least 1,500.

[19] See discussion of Unemployment Rates in chapter on New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures for definitions of these categories and numbers of areas in each of them.

[20] The unemployment rate must have averaged 6 percent or more and have been 50 percent above the national average for 3 of the preceding 4 years (or still further above it for a smaller number of years).

The employment declines in agriculture and mining may be seen, to a more limited extent, in the listing of certain midwestern areas in the "substantial or persistent unemployment" categories. West Virginia also has a great many smaller areas still in these categories, indicating that its recovery has not been so strong in the smaller as in the larger areas. However, West Virginia and Pennsylvania have substantially reduced the number of their major depressed areas since 1961. To some extent this has been due to the general improvement in business conditions. But a vigorous policy of encouraging industrial development, plus considerable out-migration from depressed areas, has resulted in significant progress for both States, with the Pennsylvania unemployment rate actually below the national rate in 1967.

## Migration and Industrial Location Factors

Manpower, economic, and industrial conditions in different parts of the country are influenced by economic developments elsewhere, as reflected in the migration of people and the flow of capital and other resources. Generally, manpower and economic imbalances are likely to be reduced over time—with the movement of people and industrial resources to new areas, pushed by the lack of earning opportunities or pulled by the promise of better ones.

The American people have, during most of their history, reacted to calls of opportunity by a strong inclination to "pull up stakes" and seek more fulfilling lives, whether measured in economic or other terms. Industry has responded to new opportunities with equal vigor. Frontiers have been breached in the quest for new resources, and capital has continually sought new outlets for investment. These largely private activities have led to a vast amount of economic growth and have opened new opportunities. But they have by no means eliminated the economy's geographic imbalances. In many areas of the Nation, the forces of progress have skipped places and people that now need help.

### MIGRATION

The labor resources in an area are one of the most significant factors in its economic development. In many areas, migration has substantially added to, or subtracted from, the manpower available. Furthermore, as already suggested, most migration seems to assist in the balancing of the economy, and almost all is undertaken without assistance. However, migration has also meant new problems for many people, and for many of the areas which have lost or gained population.

Following is a brief review of some aspects of migration and its manpower consequences. Much of the information is in terms of net migration, the form in which most of the detailed statistics relating to migration has been published. For certain purposes, particularly to identify the specific demographic and labor force characteristics of groups of people, gross flow data are preferable. Where sufficient data on this basis are available, they have been incorporated into the following presentation.[21]

The American people are highly mobile. In any year, about 6 percent of the Nation's population can be expected to move across county lines to a new residence. Who moves, where they go, and why they move are significant questions in any evaluation of the geographic aspects of manpower policy.[22]

The people who move tend to be the young and also those who are above average in education, skill, and income. During most of the postwar period, migration between labor areas has been less for Negroes than for whites in the country as a whole, in relative terms as well as absolute numbers, and this differential has been widening. The lower mobility of Negroes is explained largely by the lower skills, education, and income level of the Negroes.

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[21] The basic migration data are from the U.S. Decennial *Census of Population* and the annually published Current Population Reports, Series P–20.

[22] For a more comprehensive discussion of migration, see John B. Lansing and Eva Mueller, *The Geographic Mobility of Labor* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute of Social Research, 1967). Also see *1965 Manpower Report*, p. 145 ff.

Most men are employed when they migrate, and many move to take other—presumably better—jobs. Nevertheless, the rate of migration is about twice as high among unemployed as employed workers. Clearly, unemployment and the search for work are very important motivations for migration.

To a large though still undetermined extent, migration takes place in response to the changing locale of employment opportunities, which is a direct result of the relocation of economic activity. There are two types of relationships between migration and economic development. First, migration acts as a key factor in an adjustment process whereby labor moves from where it is redundant to where it is needed; second, and more significant for the long run, the movement of labor attracts business to areas which are growing, because the right skills and qualities of labor are available and because purchases by workers and their families increase market opportunities. In other words, areas which tend initially to attract people reinforce this attraction through the process of migration.

*Gross out-migration* from an area is heavily influenced by life cycle events—for example, young people leave parental households to take or look for jobs, people over 60 move after retirement, and wives follow their husbands. The age distribution of the population is thus an important determinant of out-migration. There is even some evidence which suggests that the proportion of a given age group which leaves an area (i.e., the out-migration rate) tends to be similar among all areas and not to change much over time.[23] However, out-migration rates vary widely among age groups, as well as by level of education and skill. In general, they become smaller for persons past age 35, owing in part to the job protection afforded by increased experience and seniority, and to the effects of family responsibilities and attachment to a given environment.

*Gross in-migration* to an area is determined primarily by the economic opportunities the area offers and its attraction for out-migrants from other areas. However, some people migrate for mainly noneconomic reasons (e.g., retired people to Florida and Arizona and students to university centers). Furthermore, many migrants who move primarily for economic reasons choose their specific destinations on the basis of noneconomic factors as well.

### Rural to Urban Migration

Rural people have for many years sought employment in the Nation's cities. This has reflected the attraction of better paying, nonfarm jobs in cities and the declining need for farmworkers brought about by advances in agricultural technology and productivity. While most of the migrants from the rural areas are the young and better educated, there are many who are poor, have inadequate education, or lack marketable skills. Among these are Negroes from the South, who generally make long-distance moves towards large population centers throughout the country, and whites from Appalachia, who usually locate in the North Central region and the West.[24]

During the 1950's, predominantly rural counties[25] experienced a net loss of 4.6 million people through migration, all of which occurred in the South and North Central States. (See chart 24.) By contrast, the rural counties in the Northeastern States showed a net migration gain of 400,000. The West was the only major region that experienced almost no net change through migration in and out of such counties, although there were many offsetting population shifts within this region.

On the other hand, predominantly urban counties had a net gain of 7.3 million through in-migration between 1950 and 1960 (including 2.7 million people from outside the country). Over four-fifths of the net in-migration to urban counties was in the West and the South. The rest of

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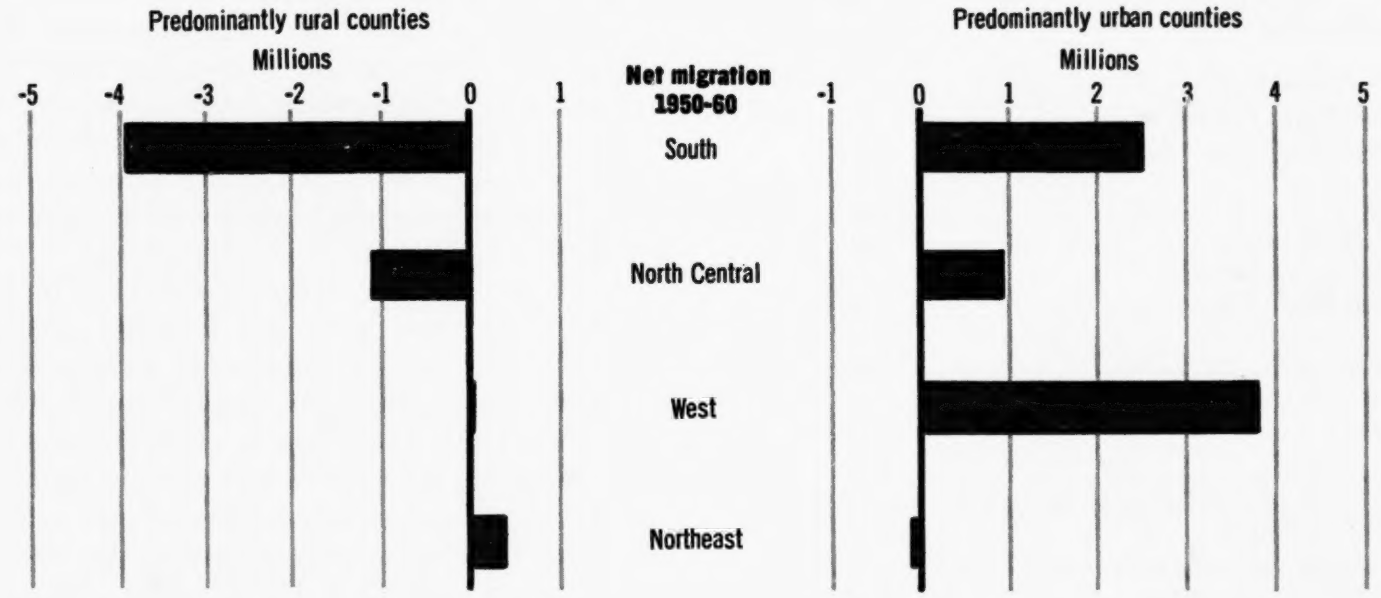
[23] Ira S. Lowry, *Migration and Metropolitan Growth: Two Analytical Models* (Los Angeles: University of California, 1966). See also Lansing and Mueller, op. cit., ch. 3. Lowry's findings, based on SMSA migration data, were confirmed by the National Planning Association's subnational projection model, using State data.

[24] For additional information on rural-to-urban migration, see Calvin L. Beale, Vera J. Banks, and Gladys K. Bowles, *Trends and Outlook for Rural Migration* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, 1966).

[25] Predominantly rural counties are those in which at least 50 percent of the population is classified as rural.

CHART 24

**Migration losses were substantial from rural counties in South and North Central regions...urban counties had large migration gains in all regions except the Northeast.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

the gain occurred in the North Central States. In contrast, the Northeast showed a migration loss of 100,000 from predominantly urban counties. But more significantly, this net figure was the result of a 600,000 loss of white population—probably in the main to suburbs and other nearby rural areas—and an influx of 500,000 nonwhites.

The most significant single aspect of the rural migration is the strong selectivity by age. An analysis of the age characteristics of the population of predominantly rural counties reveals that from 1950 to 1960, about 80 percent of the population depletion was among people under 30 in 1960.

In absolute numbers, the migration of whites from predominantly rural counties exceeded that of nonwhites. But in terms of the rate of migration relative to population, the situation was reversed.[26] In counties that were over 70 percent rural, the net out-migration among whites was 2.9 million, as compared to 1.2 million for nonwhites between 1950 and 1960, while the rate of out-migration for nonwhites was over twice that for whites. One out of every four nonwhites migrated out of these counties. In counties that were only 50 to 70 percent rural, there was almost no net migration of whites, but the rate of out-migration for nonwhites was 15 percent.

### Interregional Migration

During the 1950's, the basic net migration pattern among the major regions of the country was highlighted by heavy flows to the West and from the South. Lesser net flows characterized the Northeast and North Central regions. (See table 5.) Net migration among regions is affected not only by the fundamental rural to urban shifts described earlier, but also by interurban flows, cross migration—including people returning to places from which they had migrated—and the net impact of foreign in-migration.

The search for new opportunities has been dramatically evident in the continued shift to the West—a tradition which has persisted ever since gold was discovered in California in 1849. All in all, a net 3.9 million people migrated to the West

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[26] Rates of migration are calculated on the basis of the population segment expected to survive to the end of the period.

Table 5. Net Migration by Region, 1950 to 1960[1]

[Thousands]

| Region | Net migration |
|---|---|
| Northeast | 336 |
| New England | 23 |
| Middle Atlantic | 313 |
| North Central | −119 |
| East North Central | 699 |
| West North Central | −818 |
| South | −1416 |
| South Atlantic | 635 |
| East South Central | −1464 |
| West South Central | −587 |
| West | 3864 |
| Mountain | 571 |
| Pacific | 3293 |

[1] Net in-migration exceeds net out-migration by 2.7 million due to in-migration from abroad.

Source: *Net Migration of the Population, 1950-60 by Age, Sex, and Color* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, November 1965), vol. II.

during the 1950's, of whom about 3.1 million settled in California, helping to lay the foundation for the State's takeover of first place in the ranking of State populations in the early 1960's.

By contrast, the South lost almost 1½ million people through net out-migration. This reflected the exodus of many rural residents—white and nonwhite—who were particularly hard hit by advancing farm technology affecting several of the region's major crops. Population losses were severe in most States of the South. Only five—Delaware, Florida, Maryland, Texas, and Virginia—showed increases, with Florida accounting for almost all of the gain.

The Northeast, comprising the New England and Middle Atlantic States, showed an increase of about 340,000 people from net in-migration. The bulk of this increase was in New Jersey, Connecticut, and New York, as these States with their large metropolitan centers continued to attract migrants from other sections of the country.

Over 100,000 people, on balance, migrated from the great complex of States in the North Central region during the 1950's. But this out-migration reflected sharply divergent trends between the western part of the region—which lost over 800,000 people, many of them farmworkers seeking new opportunities in more industrialized areas—and the eastern portion which gained almost 700,000. The important manufacturing areas of Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois benefited particularly from this net in-migration.

As chart 25 shows, net migration rates (i.e., change in population due to net migration as a percent of 1950 population) ranged widely among the States. Although the trend to the West is clearly evident, some outstanding exceptions include Florida (which had the highest in-migration rate of 58 percent), Maryland, and New Jersey.

So far during the 1960's, the patterns of in- and out-migration have generally followed previous trends, with the West continuing to attract in-migrants, although at a somewhat slower pace than during the 1950 to 1960 decade. On the other hand, out-migration since 1960 had accelerated from the North Central States and reflects a large net loss of white population only slightly offset by in-migration of nonwhites. The South was the only broad region in which previous migration patterns were reversed—shifting from a region of substantial out-migration to a net gainer through in-migration. There has been a large net inflow of whites in response to improving economic conditions in the southern States, especially in their metropolitan areas. At the same time, nonwhites have continued to leave the South.

### Central City-Suburban Ring Migration

The wholesale movement of white people from central city areas to suburban communities has been a continuous migration pattern during the post-World War II period. This movement of whites to the suburbs stems only in part from the increase in suburban job opportunities (discussed earlier in this chapter). It also reflects a preference for these residential communities, with their superior school systems and other attractions. The congestion, deterioration of services, crime, and physical decay of central cities have also stimulated white out-migration from the cities. Finally, part of this movement must be attributed to racial prejudice—the desire to escape the increasing concentration of Negroes in the central city.

Negroes, in contrast, are generally prevented from making the same choice. They are kept out of suburbia, sometimes by discriminatory real estate practices, sometimes by lack of income, sometimes by the lack of education and job skills needed to take advantage of the better suburban jobs, and all too frequently by many or all of these combined.

### Reasons for Migration

Most people who move from one county to another give as their reason for moving a job or income-related factor. Those in the strongest economic position—the more skilled and educated—are likely to give an economic reason as the motivating factor more often than other people.[27]

About one-fourth of the people who move between labor areas do so wholly or partly for family reasons. And about half of all the movers (including those migrating for economic reasons) go to areas where they already have family ties. The converse of this is that when family ties are established in a particular place, this tends to inhibit migration to other areas. Negroes much more than whites go to areas where members of their families already live.

A number of movers—about 20 percent—indicate that their selection of a place to move to is based on the general attractiveness of the area, its climate, and the amenities that it offers.

Homeownership, pension plan coverage, unemployment insurance rights, and welfare payments do not seem to be strong barriers to mobility on an overall basis, although among middle-aged and older people such factors may constitute substantial obstacles. However, programs to remove these barriers are likely to facilitate migration of particular groups. For individuals unable to make the transition from one environment to another without assistance, special relocation assistance projects have already been developed, on an experimental basis, under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

The lack of economic opportunity in a lagging area apparently has less effect in stimulating out-migration than inhibiting in-migration. But the total result of the migration process is a weakened labor force, because of the outflow of youth and persons in the central age bracket without com-

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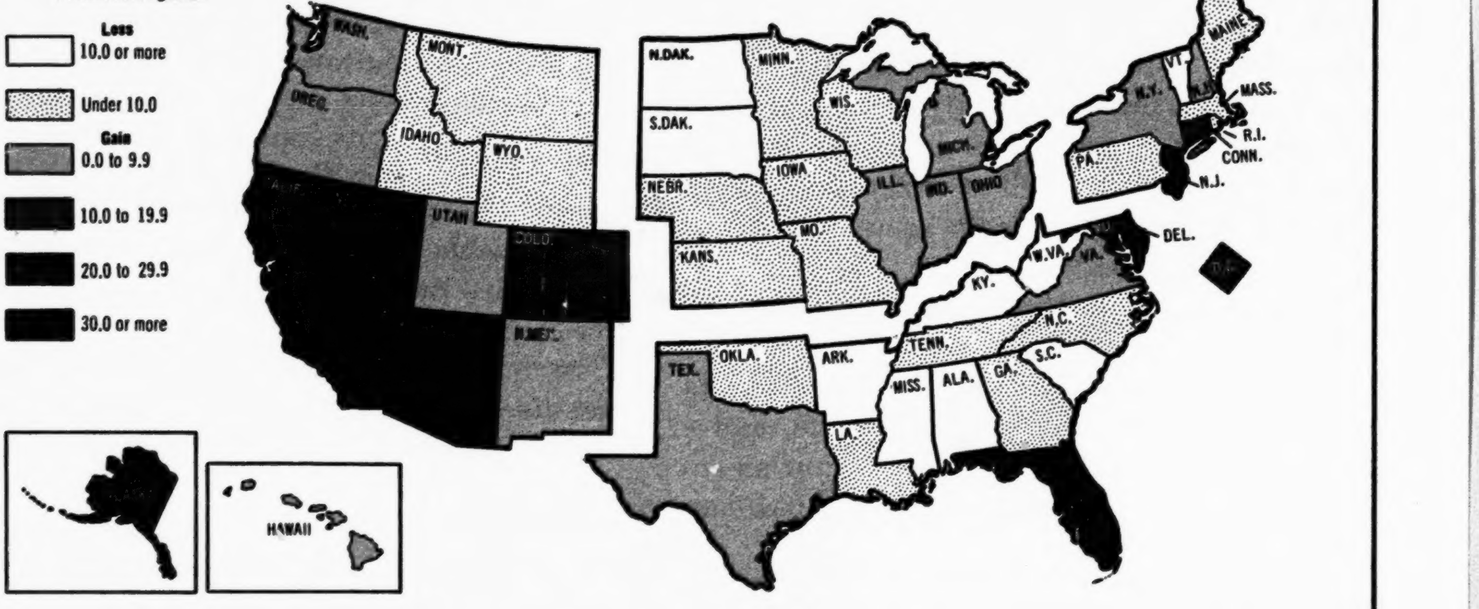
[27] Lansing and Mueller, op. cit., p. 336 ff.

CHART 25

**Rates of in-migration were highest in the West between 1950 and 1960, with losses due to out-migration concentrated in the South (except Florida).**

Net migration, 1950 to 1960, as percent of 1950 population, by States



Percent net migration
Loss
10.0 or more
Under 10.0
Gain
0.0 to 9.9
10.0 to 19.9
20.0 to 29.9
30.0 or more
WASH.
MONT.
OREG.
IDAHO
WYO.
UTAH
COLO.
N.MEX.
N.DAK.
S.DAK.
NEBR.
KANS.
MINN.
IOWA
MO.
WIS.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
MICH.
OKLA.
ARK.
TEX.
LA.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
S.C.
N.C.
TENN.
KY.
W.VA.
VA.
MD.
DEL.
D.C.
PA.
N.Y.
N.J.
VT.
N.H.
MAINE
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
HAWAII

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

pensating in-migration of people in these age groups. The net effect is, thus, to hamper the area's future economic development. As the population loses more and more of its younger, better educated members, the labor force becomes even more unsatisfactory to industry and the lagging areas become still more depressed. To break this cycle and make these areas more attractive to productive and energetic in-migrants and so to improve the quality of the labor force are prime objectives of manpower and economic development programs.

## INDUSTRIAL LOCATION FACTORS

Traditionally, market-oriented industries have tended to locate in the Northeast; raw material-oriented industries have found sites near their particular sources of supply, wherever these are located; and industries needing low-skilled labor have tended to locate in the South. Today, these historic location patterns are changing, because of more efficient transportation and a number of other factors. Natural raw material sources are declining in importance, as the supplies of these materials are depleted and industries place more reliance upon manufactured synthetics. Technological advances in the production and transmission of energy and greater interarea equalization of the price of labor have also been contributing factors.

Recent trends in industrial location are: (1) Movement from the Northeast to the South and West; (2) movement from central cities to suburban rings; (3) an increased tendency to locate near markets rather than supply sources; and (4) a tendency for clusters of research and development and associated "intellect-oriented" activities to locate in areas with large concentrations of educational facilities.[28]

The location factors that are most important for today's industries include access to skilled workers or to a trainable labor pool, ready access to fast transportation, low-cost real estate, and—particularly important for nonmanufacturing enterprises as well as for many smaller and medium-sized manufacturing firms—the availability of diversified business services.

Many of these factors are available or can be readily attracted to a considerable number of areas, making industry much more mobile than in the past. While our central cities have been the locale of many of these factors and constitute probably the largest reserve pool of unskilled labor, recent technological developments now make many rural and semirural locations a viable option for manufacturing industry for the first time.

### Labor As a Factor in Plant Location

In locating new plants, as well as expanding existing ones, companies will usually seek out areas that can provide an adequate supply of labor with appropriate skills, wage levels, and productivity. These may be the most important determining factors in location decisions, particularly in manufacturing. Modern transportation facilities have greatly increased the geographical range from which a labor supply may be drawn. Rural areas with low traffic densities may have advantages, provided they are near transportation arteries. Since, in these areas, distance is less important than time spent in commuting, a commuting radius of 50 miles from a plant may be possible. On the other hand, metropolitan areas are generally in a more favorable position because they already have an existing labor pool containing many different types of skills and experience useful to potential employers.

While the relative importance of low-skilled labor as a locational factor is declining, training possibilities have improved considerably, and today low-skilled workers can be converted into semiskilled operatives or trained to handle even more demanding tasks with less effort than a generation ago. This makes the availability of low-skilled but trainable people a significant advantage for some industries. In addition, in some industries low-skilled labor is still of primary importance. These include, in addition to a number of services, manufacturing industries such as textiles, apparel, canning and food processing, shoes and slippers, and toys.

Just at the time when the number of low-skilled workers has increased in the central cities of many large metropolitan areas, manufacturing has been leaving these areas and going to the suburbs, small cities, and semirural locations in search of lower costs. The opportunities for employment of the low-skilled in many metropolitan areas are increasingly in the service industries, while in the nonfarm rural areas there are increasing opportunities in manufacturing.

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[28] *Industrial Location as a Factor in Regional Economic Development* (Washington: Management and Economics Research, Inc., 1967, for the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economic Development Administration), pp. 31–37.

The availability of skilled workers is a major locational factor in many industries. Examples of industries that require an adequate skilled labor supply include printing, some of the metalworking and electrical and nonelectrical machinery industries, and the instrument and allied products industry.

An abundant supply of skilled labor is rare in rural areas. Hence, industries requiring a relatively small proportion of skilled workers are likely to be the ones most suitable for rural locations. The availability of skilled labor in metropolitan areas, in addition to the reserves of low-skilled labor there, are factors that would favor these areas as sites for new or expanding industries. But as has been pointed out, most types of professional, technical, and skilled manpower are highly mobile and can be attracted to areas where they are not available in adequate supply. Also, skills can be developed through vocational training, apprenticeship, and on-the-job training of other kinds.

### Other Location Factors

There are many factors other than labor that are important determinants of industrial and commercial location. In many industries, particularly in nonmanufacturing, so-called "agglomeration" factors resulting in external economies are of the utmost importance. When there are several enterprises of the same type in an area, their joint use of certain resources may reduce costs for all the companies involved. Cost savings are also possible when many business and professional services are available locally and can be utilized with a minimum expenditure of time and money. Finally, there are the manifold advantages that person-to-person communication in a major center affords to everyone in that area. This factor represents one of the principal advantages of central city locations.

Access to good transportation facilities continues to be one of the important location determinants. With the steady improvements in the Nation's highway network, ever-increasing numbers of localities can meet this requirement. Many rural and semirural areas with new highways now have, for the first time, the potential to attract industry.

Environmental factors also have a bearing on industrial location decisions. Prominent among these are general community attitudes toward incoming and existing industry, the quality of local government, proximity to institutions of higher education or research facilities, and the availability of good housing and plant sites at reasonable prices.

The importance of interarea differences in tax burdens as a location factor has been a subject of considerable controversy. In a recent study the Advisory Commission for Intergovernmental Relations found taxes to be of relatively minor importance, except in choices between alternative sites in different localities within the same metropolitan or labor area.

Generally, tax burdens for industry in the South Atlantic and the East and West South Central States are lower than elsewhere. Also, in most instances, taxes vary directly with the size of a community, being lowest in rural areas and highest in the largest metropolitan centers, reflecting in the main the greater number and quality of public services rendered in the larger communities.

In recent years, more and more localities have been offering financial incentives to new plants, and a significant number of industrial enterprises have been attracted by them. Such financial inducements, often reinforced by tax concessions, usually take the form of new plants and facilities constructed by the locality and made available to the manufacturer on very attractive terms.

Industry location factors differ in their significance according to the characteristics of the industry concerned. Nevertheless, some factors enter into location decisions more frequently and more significantly than others. Labor is the most important single factor for most manufacturing industries not dependent on proximity to natural resources.

It would take the compensating advantages of a combination of a great many other factors—such as the availability of shared business services, proximity to markets, and environmental advantages—to overcome the pull of labor cost and labor supply advantages.

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## Federal Government Programs

In his Executive order creating the Federal Advisory Council on Regional Economic Development in December 1967, the President said: "Much work awaits us in rebuilding the cities of America to meet the needs of growing population. But we cannot afford to neglect the areas that lie beyond the cities or the people that live in them. They too must be permitted to share in America's great abundance."

To fulfill this Presidential directive will require not only physical rebuilding but also economic and employment growth and social renovation in the country's distressed and lagging areas, both urban and rural. A battery of Federal programs is aimed at these objectives. These are concerned with providing the highways and access roads that will open rural areas to economic development and ease commuting problems; with provision of the other public facilities and special incentives needed to attract business to depressed areas or new growth centers; with rehabilitation of residential housing and provision of needed health and social services; with improvements in education and training to equip workers with needed skills; and with a variety of manpower services aimed at better matching of workers and jobs.

These programs have as a major goal the improvement of employment opportunities and the quality of life for people in areas that do not now share in the national prosperity. Their effects on employment and unemployment, earnings, levels of training, and other manpower problems in different geographic areas are intended.

In addition, the operations of the Federal Government affect industrial and business growth and employment opportunities in different localities in other highly important but essentially unintended ways. Defense and other Government purchasing, for example, has unintended effects on the geography of manpower problems that may well be greater than the purposive effects of economic development, manpower, and related programs.

The major Federal programs that have regional and area employment consequences can be categorized as investment programs, procurement programs, and social and manpower programs.

*Government investment programs* can often provide the needed stimulus to development of lagging areas, though both public and private investment in productive facilities is required to meet these areas' problems. Public investment in transportation facilities is particularly important, since these facilities are a critical factor in attracting private firms and facilitating commuting to jobs. But in addition, the location of military installations, health and education facilities, and other Government services are important for the jobs they might create and the attractions to firms and families that they might offer.

State and local as well as Federal investment programs are, of course, required. But local governments are very often caught in the vicious circle of being unable to afford the needed investments precisely because economic development is lacking. The Federal Government, through grant and direct investment programs, can help break this circle.

For growing areas, public investments are needed to prevent deterioration in economic productivity and to improve environmental quality. This involves investment in facilities for education, health, transportation, and recreation, and the control of problems arising from pollution and congestion.

*Federal procurement programs* have great importance for areas that can compete for orders, because of the magnitude of Government purchases of goods and services—amounting to over 10 percent of the gross national product in recent years.

"Federal procurement policies, with a few minor exceptions, do not reflect regional economic development goals as a major consideration," according to the report of the Independent Study Board.[29] This is essentially because procurement officers seek to obtain goods or services of the needed quality at the lowest cost to the procuring agency. They therefore place orders in areas that have the skilled workers and the facilities required for efficient production, and these are usually not the areas in need of economic development. In general, however, after taking account of the prime contracting, subcontracting, and supplier interactions, "the total impact of Federal expenditures closely follows the distribution of population among the States." [30]

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[29] The Independent Study Board, consisting of 24 governmental and nongovernmental members and alternates, was established by the Secretary of Commerce, in accordance with the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, to study "the effects of Government procurement, scientific, technical, and other related policies upon regional economic development," See *Report of the Independent Study Board on the Regional Effects of Government Procurement and Related Policies* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Economic Development Administration, December 1967), p. 24. The report contains an exhaustive treatment of Federal procurement, with associated policy recommendations.

Under special circumstances, however, Federal procurement might well be used as an instrument for stimulating economic and employment development in specific areas. Indeed, the Independent Study Board has recommended that "existing programs designed to encourage companies in distressed areas to compete for Government procurement contracts should be extended and strengthened." [31] Federal procurement costs might rise somewhat, as a result, but the total cost to the Nation might be reduced—as a result, for example, of reduced costs of welfare programs in depressed areas. However, even if used effectively for intended geographic consequences, Federal procurement would have only limited effects and "would not provide the stimulus needed to cure all regional economic ills." [32]

The objectives of *manpower and social programs* are interwoven with those of economic development. This is true for specific regions as well as for the country generally. Economic development provides the means for achieving higher levels of employment and earnings and increased social well-being; at the same time, these objectives define the need for economic development.

The thrust of Federal manpower programs has been described as a "lowering of geographical, age, skill, and racial barriers which prevented many individuals from competing effectively for existing jobs." [33] Such barriers to full employment opportunity exist almost everywhere to some degree, but they are heavily concentrated in certain kinds of areas. Thus, geographic considerations weigh heavily in the planning of manpower programs. Reflecting the philosophy that these programs should be geared to meeting local needs, 90 percent of the total Federal manpower budget is spent by State and local governments and private institutions—chiefly at the local level where the programs are implemented.

The following sections discuss some specific Federal programs—those judged to have the most direct and important geographic consequences. A great many other Federal programs also have some impact, mostly unintended, on economic development and employment opportunity in specific areas. In addition, training, job development, and other programs have had significant effects on employment and manpower development in many areas. And so have the Community Action Programs and other antipoverty efforts of the Office of Economic Opportunity. Some of the major developments in manpower and antipoverty programs are discussed in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs, as well as previous *Manpower Reports.*

## ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

The Federal Government is committed to nationwide achievement of maximum levels of employment and economic well-being. The Government's broad powers and programs have contributed to a high rate of national growth and prosperity in the postwar years and particularly since 1961.

Unfortunately, many regions and areas have not participated fully in this growth. The Federal Government has accordingly undertaken several programs aimed at the economic development of the country's most depressed or underdeveloped regions and areas.

The first Federal redevelopment program was established under the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961. The ARA program specified criteria for the designation of redevelopment areas and provided financial assistance to help establish or promote the expansion of business that would create new employment in the affected areas. The act also established a small program of grants and loans for public facilities, a modest program of technical assistance, and a manpower retraining program (the latter function was largely transferred to the Department of Labor by the Manpower Act of 1965). For some areas the number of job opportunities created as a result of the program was substantial.

### Appalachian Redevelopment

In 1965, the Government took a further step in its concern for lagging regions by calling for a multistate approach to economic development under the Appalachian Regional Development Act. This act reflected the experience with earlier legislation, which indicated that economic development efforts can have only limited success when confined to local areas and that, for many areas, effective development can be achieved best through joint action by neighboring States.

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[30] Ibid., p. 11.

[31] Ibid., p. x.

[32] Ibid., p. ix.

[33] Sar A. Levitan and Garth L. Mangum, *Making Sense of Federal Manpower Policy* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan—Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, and the National Manpower Task Force, 1967), p. 2.

The objective of the Appalachian program is to realize the potential inherent in the region's underdeveloped resources. Because of Appalachia's geographic and economic diversity, the program operates through 63 different planning districts. The general expectation is that public investments, by reducing impediments to growth and capitalizing upon identified development opportunities, will stimulate private investment in the region and move it steadily toward a self-sustaining economy.

Four kinds of public investments are stipulated by the act—transportation facilities to and within the region, improved natural resource utilization, improvements in community facilities and housing, and improvement in human resources. Almost $600 million have been appropriated under the act through fiscal 1968, of which about three-fifths was allocated for highways and local access roads. This heavy emphasis on the development of a transportation network is based on the relative isolation of much of the region. (And the mountainous terrain of the region makes road construction relatively expensive.) Despite its location close to the great urban industrial areas of the Atlantic Seaboard, the Midwest, and the South, Appalachia has been isolated from the flow of commerce among these areas. Some manufacturing enterprises for which access to a national market is critical have therefore stayed away from Appalachia. An improved transportation system would also help Appalachia's rural people commute to new jobs and services as they develop. Schools, health facilities, and industrial parks are being located on the new highway systems.

Improvement of the education and training of the people in the region is also essential in view of their below-average educational and occupational skill levels. An Advisory Committee on Education has therefore been appointed to develop recommendations for improving education in Appalachia. In a preliminary assessment, the Committee has indicated that the region's educational needs exceed the financial resources currently available.

To provide improved occupational training, a network of vocational and technical training institutions is under construction throughout Appalachia. In addition, through a joint effort by the Appalachian Regional Commission, and the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare, an appraisal is being made of future manpower needs to assist in the planning of vocational curriculums. And special financial assistance is being provided to the poorer local school districts under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. It is too early yet to evaluate the effects of these efforts to strengthen education and training.

Pervasive health problems and lack of adequate health care also adversely affect the employability, as well as the general well-being, of the people of Appalachia. During 1967, however, a comprehensive program of health services was initiated in several parts of the region where these services are most deficient. Heavy emphasis in this program is on providing services to people in isolated places. The program is also being used for the training of needed health manpower.

The recent changes in Appalachia which stem from Federal and other redevelopment efforts cannot be wholly distinguished from those which have occurred as a result of overall improvements in the Nation's economy. For many years per capita income in Appalachia has been rising in spite of its distressed condition. However, prior to 1960, this rise was associated with considerable net out-migration and with a significant amount of public assistance and other benefit payments to people in the area. By contrast, since 1962, net out-migration has slowed considerably. And more recently unemployment has declined as employment has grown. Although the contribution of Federal programs to these encouraging developments cannot be separately identified, their positive impact has been felt in many parts of Appalachia—partly through encouragement provided to local leadership in seizing opportunities as they became available.

## Other Regional Economic Development Programs

The program of the Economic Development Administration (EDA), created under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, represents a multilevel geographic approach toward problems of economic development and underemployment.

Aid is directed toward the immediate and urgent problems of local redevelopment areas,[34] of which almost 900 were eligible for assistance as of early 1968. Areas become eligible for assistance by demonstrating relatively low median family incomes, relatively high out-migration rates, and chronically high unemployment rates. Areas are also required to complete an overall economic development program, describing the development goals and providing for an organization of local citizens to do the job on a continuing basis.

A more permanent and extensive economic development base is being sought by providing assistance to economic development districts. These districts are combinations of two or more redevelopment areas, which include an urban area of no more than 250,000 persons with potentiality as an economic development or growth center. To qualify for EDA assistance, districts must formulate development plans that give promise of lasting economic effects.

The Economic Development Administration also encourages and participates in the establishment of Regional Action Planning Commissions—consisting of the Governors of the affected States and a Federal representative appointed by the President. These commissions enable the constituent States and the Federal Government to cooperate in planning and implementing economic development programs requiring multistate resources or dealing with a common, multistate problem. As indicated earlier, five commissions have been established under the Public Works and Economic Development Act so far—Upper Great Lakes, Ozarks, New England, Four Corners, and Coastal Plains.

The types of assistance for which redevelopment areas and development districts are eligible are business loans, grants and loans for public works and development facilities, technical assistance, planning grants, and research and information assistance. In fiscal 1967, $279 million was allocated for redevelopment assistance. Of this total, $53 million was allocated for business loans, providing financial assistance to firms for projects that could not be financed through conventional channels. The development facilities program provides grants and loans to local communities for projects geared to improving public facilities—for example, water supply and sewer systems. Under this program, $199 million was allocated in fiscal 1967. The remainder of the operating budget goes for planning grants and research, and for technical assistance projects.

Except for technical assistance and planning funds, EDA loans and grants are not provided to the commissions but go directly to redevelopment areas and districts, virtually all located within the commission regions and Appalachia. Between the time the agency began operations in September 1965 and December 31, 1967, the EDA has approved projects involving slightly over $590 million. Of this total, $414 million was approved for projects within the five commission regions, $126 million for projects in Appalachia, and $52 million for projects in other parts of the country.

The EDA also provides technical and professional advice to the commissions to help them pursue a coordinated multistate regional development approach similar to the strategy adopted for Appalachia. The commissions' programs take cognizance, however, of differences in resources and opportunities among their various regions.

The goal of the Ozarks Regional Commission is to generate an economic development program that will improve resources, provide more good jobs, and narrow the gap in per capita income between the region and the country generally. The commission's economic development strategies focus on: (1) Expanding and improving education in all its aspects, with particular emphasis on technical and occupational skill training; (2) developing and upgrading public facilities related to economic development in areas of significant growth potential; and (3) creating attitudes favorable to economic growth and expansion.

In the field of education, the Ozarks Commission has begun an active program for technical education. The first step has been the planning of a system of occupational and technical skill training for each of the States involved. The team of consultants responsible for this planning has already submitted its recommendations to the Governors of Arkansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma and are beginning work in Kansas. Their recommendations call for new technical education centers, which will educate and train young adults in job skills and thus provide a foundation for the expansion of industry in the region.

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[34] A redevelopment area is a labor area—county, city, or Indian reservation—that is depressed in the sense that its actual or impending unemployment rate is high, its income level is low, or it has sustained heavy population loss; in rural America, redevelopment areas typically are single counties.

In more recent months, the States in the Ozarks region have been preparing comprehensive recommendations for a regional public investment plan. A team of economic and engineering consultants is also analyzing the region's transportation system. The Ozarks region needs better access to the markets of the central part of the United States, and improved linkages in its existing road system to tie together growth areas.

To cope with the problems of the New England region, the six New England Governors and the Federal cochairman of the commission have given high priority to human resource development. During the first 6 months of operation, the commission has initiated two major studies to help in planning an attack on the region's problems:

1. A comprehensive review of the New England economy and its human resources is now underway, with preliminary findings expected by the end of the 1968 fiscal year.

2. An analysis of all types of transportation throughout New England should be completed by the end of this fiscal year.

In addition, the commission is carrying on a health manpower demonstration project designed to increase the supply of subprofessional personnel. Working with the U.S. Departments of Commerce and of Labor and a hospital training center in Boston, Mass., the commission is training teachers in the specialized skills needed to prepare the hard-core unemployed for such jobs as nurse aides, home health aides, physical therapist assistants, and clerical workers. At the same time, the commission is training approximately 100 of the area's unemployed to fill immediate vacancies in subprofessional hospital jobs.

Each of the States is currently developing a State public investment plan designed to improve and strengthen its economic development plans and programs. These plans are essential to coordinated, regionwide planning by the commission.

The Upper Great Lakes region has suffered severe economic dislocation owing to the decline of a basic resource industry (mining) and the adverse impact of technological change. The commission is attempting to buttress the declining mining economy through new mineral discoveries and improved technology for utilizing low-grade ores. Also, it is attempting to accelerate the growth potentials of the region's manufacturing and tourist industries.

Through strategic public investments, the commission hopes to create conditions that will stimulate an even greater amount of private investment in productive, growth-generating industries. Of particular importance are investments in education and training to upgrade the skills of a work force depleted by out-migration.

The regional development efforts of the Four Corners Commission and Coastal Plains Commission are still in the planning stage. These efforts, like those in Appalachia, the Ozarks, New England, and the Upper Great Lakes, are based upon the concept of providing, through public investment, the basic public facilities needed to make it economically advantageous for private capital to move into the desired areas.

It is too early to assess the impact of EDA activities on the level of income and employment in different regions. The observed reduction in the unemployment rates of many labor areas that were depressed in the early 1960's has been due, in large part, to the general economic expansion, although EDA programs probably had a stimulating effect. EDA estimates that roughly 15,000 new jobs have been created in these places as a result of its approved business loans, which totaled about $100 million during fiscal years 1966 and 1967.

## HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) is the Federal agency centrally concerned with rehabilitating the Nation's cities and improving the quantity and quality of urban residential housing. HUD's programs have been concerned with urban renewal, housing, mass transit, and, more recently, the Model Cities Program aimed at rejuvenation of slum neighborhoods.

A national goal of 26 million new homes and apartments over the next 10 years was recommended by the President in his message on Housing and Cities on February 22. Of this total, 6 million units—designed to replace substandard housing in urban and rural areas where more than 20 million Americans still live—would be publicly assisted. The remainder—a much greater number—would be dependent wholly upon the operation of private market forces.

For fiscal 1969, the President's budget recommendations are aimed at starting federally assisted construction or rehabilitation of 300,000 housing units, to enable more than a million people to obtain decent places to live. This 1969 goal includes not only low-rent public housing units but also assistance to low-income families in buying or repairing their own homes, provision for rent supplements for poor families in privately owned housing, and construction or rehabilitation of rental units for moderate-income families.

Altogether an estimated 400,000 to 600,000 additional jobs will have to be created in the construction trades in order to achieve these objectives over the next 10 years. Many of the new jobs will be in the specific areas where increased employment opportunities are most needed.

In addition to housing, many American cities have an urgent need for improved and expanded public transit systems. With the movement of industry to suburbs and other outlying areas, it has become increasingly difficult for city dwellers—particularly the ghetto residents—to reach many new and expanding employment opportunities.

This type of situation was found to exist in the Watts area of Los Angeles through the study made following the 1965 riot. Under its Urban Mass Transit Demonstration Program, HUD provided a subsidy for a new bus line from the Watts area to certain employment centers. The new bus service has been quite successful in helping people to obtain employment and commute to work. In addition to the Watts program, two other new bus lines aimed at connecting slum residents with job opportunities (in Long Island, N.Y., and St. Louis, Mo.) were already operating or about to go into operation in early 1968. There were also about half a dozen similar projects in varying stages of planning in other localities.[35]

An integrated attack on the social, economic, and physical problems in slum and blighted neighborhoods has also been launched by HUD. This Model Cities Program, created by the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966, is still in the experimental and planning stages. Already, 75 cities have been awarded planning grants for programs. The program envisages the cooperation of many Federal agencies in making available to local communities all Federal program aids related to their multitudinous problems. At the same time, the community and its officials are expected to assume leadership in planning and carrying out the program. Federal technical and financial assistance will be forthcoming only when cities present imaginative and effective plans for dealing with the physical and social problems of their blighted areas.

The rehabilitation of residential housing and other facilities (for example, schools and recreational facilities) that may be involved in the Model Cities programs is expected to offer opportunity for increased employment of residents of the target slum areas. Where residents lack skills required for the jobs becoming available, cities will institute appropriate training, with assistance from MDTA programs. Assurance of employment for area residents will depend on appropriate arrangements with lending institutions, private construction firms, and labor unions involved in the program.

In addition, more than 100 cities have neighborhood service center projects underway to bring needed assistance to people in the poorer areas. HUD had approved the allocation of $29 million for facilities in 103 projects through June 1967. Federal grants of up to two-thirds of the cost of such facilities—up to three-quarters in the case of projects located in designated redevelopment areas—were authorized by the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1965.[36] The centers will be staffed and operated by local government agencies or private groups. They are intended to end the time-consuming, discouraging search that poorer families often face when seeking social and economic help in scattered and often distant locations in the community. Services offered include employment counseling, job training, and day care for children.

## FEDERAL PROCUREMENT

The regional impact of Federal procurement[37] has commanded wide attention as an economic issue in recent years. This concern is understand-able, since Federal purchases of goods and services have averaged more than $75 billion, or over 10 percent of the GNP, during the last 3 years. The magnitude of these purchases suggests that potential leverage exists in public procurement policy for alleviating regional imbalances in economic development and employment opportunities.

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[35] Responsibility for the major urban transit grant, loan, and related research functions now in the Department of Housing and Urban Development is to be transferred to the Department of Transportation. Responsibility for comprehensive local transportation planning and its relation to urban development will remain in HUD.

[36] For a discussion of additional neighborhood centers involving HUD and other agencies, see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[37] For a more extensive discussion, see *Report of the Independent Study Board.*

The measurement of Federal procurement and analysis of its regional impacts are difficult problems conceptually and statistically. Findings vary with the stage of the procurement process studied and with the measure used.

Initially, Federal procurement contracts tend to be placed in those States having large, highly developed, specialized industries, many skilled workers, and good transportation systems. From these centers, orders spread to subcontractors and suppliers in many different localities. As the income earned by all these producers is spent, it is further diffused throughout the economy.

Thus, the initial geographic effects of Federal spending tend to be highly concentrated, especially on the East Coast, around the Great Lakes, and in the Far West. But the ultimate impact of this spending is widely diffused through all industrial and commercial sectors and all regions of the country.

Federal spending creates income and further rounds of consumer and business spending. According to the Independent Study Board, the total national impact of all such spending in 1963 was estimated to be about $170 billion. The 10 States most affected by this spending accounted for about 60 percent of the total impact. The share attributed to California, the leading State (17 percent) was almost twice that of the second State, New York (9 percent). Pennsylvania followed (with 6 percent), and Ohio and Texas came next (with 5 percent each). The remaining States in the top 10 had shares of 3 to 4 percent; in descending order of impact, they were Illinois, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Michigan, and Connecticut.

Spending for national defense has had a more dramatic effect on the geographic location of jobs than all other Federal procurement, chiefly because of the area concentration of industries capable of providing the goods and services needed to meet the large defense commitments. In 1966, Federal spending for national defense amounted to $61 billion, and accounted for about three-fourths of all Federal expenditures for goods and services. According to estimates by the Department of Labor, about 4.1 million civilian jobs were dependent, either directly or indirectly, upon defense spending in that year.[38] Included were 1.1 million Federal employees, and 3 million workers in private companies supplying the needed goods and services. Roughly 1 out of 17 workers in nonagricultural employment in 1966 owed their jobs either directly or indirectly to defense expenditures.

Until recently there was no direct measure of the geographic effects of defense spending on employment, although some idea of the location of the resulting jobs could be obtained from the distribution of contract awards. In the past few years, however, the Department of Defense (DOD) and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) have jointly developed estimates of the geographic distribution of civilian employment generated by their respective programs. The following data relate only to defense-generated employment, as estimated by the DOD.[39] In total, these figures fall somewhat short of the Department of Labor's national estimates of defense-generated employment cited above. Nevertheless, they provide new and valuable insights into the geographic consequences of defense spending on manpower requirements and employment in the States most affected by these expenditures. (See chart 26.)

Defense-generated civilian employment has marked geographic concentrations. In June 1967, there were five States—California, Texas, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia—in which the number of defense-generated jobs exceeded 140,000, as shown by the following figures:

| *State* | *Defense-generated employment* | |
|---|---|---|
| | *Number (thousands)* | *As a percent of work force* |
| California | 499. 1 | 6. 5 |
| Texas | 182. 7 | 4. 3 |
| New York | 170. 4 | 2. 1 |
| Pennsylvania | 155. 8 | 3. 2 |
| Virginia | 143. 1 | 8. 4 |

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Defense and State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

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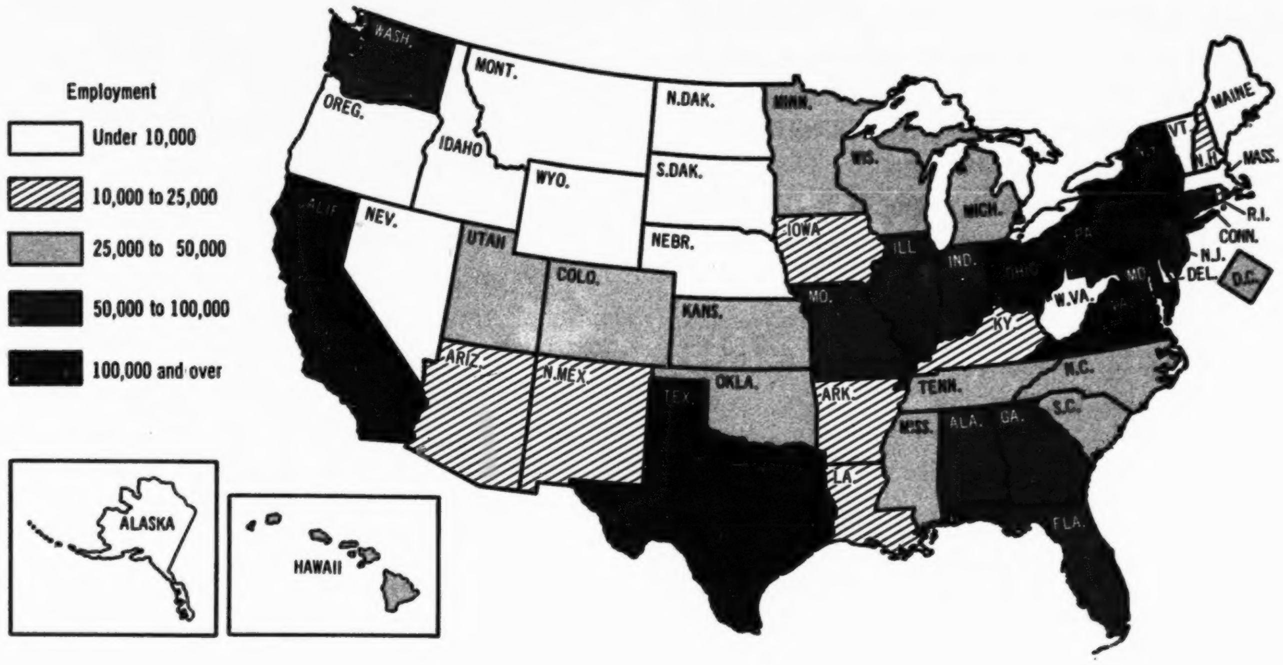
[38] For a further discussion of the national impact of government spending at all levels on the employment situation, see the chapter on Trends in Employment and Unemployment.

[39] Defense-generated employment consists of: (1) Federal civilian personnel employed at military installations; (2) estimates of private employment based on semiannual reports from over 400 major defense contractor plants engaged in prime and large subcontract work for the Department of Defense (excluding NASA); and (3) estimates of smaller contractors not reporting their employment, obtained by applying census factors to prime contract awards data. Work force data are Department of Labor estimates. In June 1967, the defense-generated employment covered by these limited estimates totaled 3.0 million for the country as a whole.

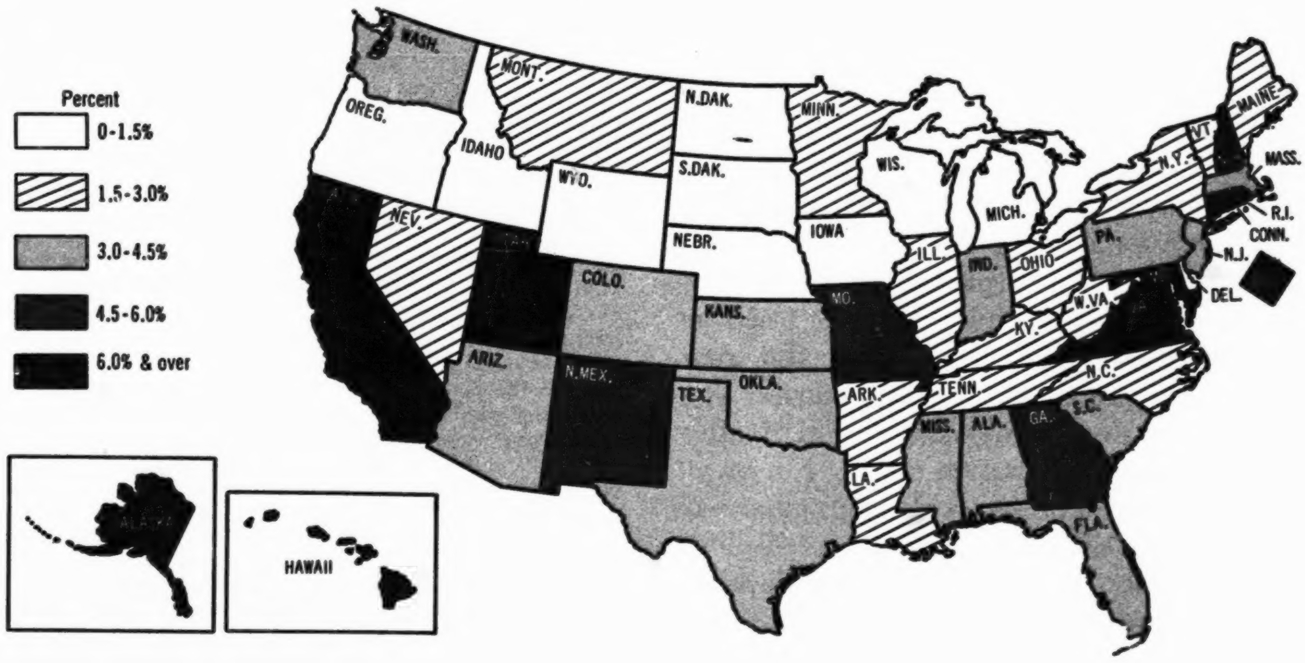
CHART 26

## Pattern of States with greatest numbers of defense employees differs from that of States where such employees represent highest proportion of workforce.

Number of employees in defense-generated jobs, June 1967


Employment
Under 10,000
10,000 to 25,000
25,000 to 50,000
50,000 to 100,000
100,000 and over
WASH.
OREG.
CALIF.
NEV.
IDAHO
MONT.
WYO.
UTAH
COLO.
ARIZ.
N.MEX.
N.DAK.
S.DAK.
NEBR.
KANS.
OKLA.
TEX.
MINN.
IOWA
MO.
ARK.
LA.
WIS.
ILL.
MICH.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
S.C.
N.C.
VA.
W.VA.
PA.
N.Y.
MD.
DEL.
N.J.
D.C.
CONN.
R.I.
MASS.
VT.
N.H.
MAINE
ALASKA
HAWAII

Proportion of State workforce in defense-generated jobs, June 1967


Percent
0-1.5%
1.5-3.0%
3.0-4.5%
4.5-6.0%
6.0% & over
WASH.
OREG.
CALIF.
NEV.
IDAHO
MONT.
WYO.
UTAH
COLO.
ARIZ.
N.MEX.
N.DAK.
S.DAK.
NEBR.
KANS.
OKLA.
TEX.
MINN.
IOWA
MO.
ARK.
LA.
WIS.
ILL.
MICH.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
S.C.
N.C.
W.VA.
PA.
N.Y.
N.J.
DEL.
CONN.
R.I.
MASS.
VT.
MAINE
ALASKA
HAWAII

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Defense.

These States accounted for almost two-fifths of the total number of civilian workers (including Federal personnel) estimated to be working on defense jobs, though only one-third of the Nation's civilian work force.

Even more significant is the extent to which employment in various communities and States depends upon defense procurement. Viewed from this perspective, a very different pattern emerges. The proportion of the civilian work force employed in defense work is above the national average of 3.6 percent in 18 States and the District of Columbia. Six of these have dependency rates at least double the national average, as the following figures show:

| | *Defense-generated employment* | |
|---|---|---|
| *State* | *Number (thousands)* | *As a percent of work force* |
| District of Columbia | 42.3 | 10.3 |
| Utah | 40.2 | 9.9 |
| Alaska | 9.4 | 9.8 |
| Hawaii | 25.3 | 8.8 |
| Virginia | 143.1 | 8.4 |
| Connecticut | 96.3 | 7.5 |

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Defense and State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

For reasons of security, data on defense-generated employment in specific local areas cannot be reported. Nonetheless, the differential impact on localities is substantial, with up to two-fifths of the labor force in some communities dependent on defense work. The areas with above-average dependency rates tend to be smaller communities—often those with military installations or ammunition plants and without diversified industries. By contrast, dependency rates are likely to be lowest in the largest areas, typically those with a labor force of 50,000 or more, although these areas may have very large numbers of defense jobs.

Developments over the past 2 years—reflecting the buildup of military production to meet the needs in Vietnam—have accentuated the geographic concentration of defense employment. The impact has been particularly marked in smaller areas, which either manufacture products in great demand since the buildup—including ammunition, textiles, and clothing—or are located close to enlarged or reactivated military installations. Clearly, when hostilities subside, the relative impact on manpower will be greatest among these smaller communities. Adjustment programs of various sorts—finding peacetime uses for plants no longer needed for defense, retraining workers for nondefense jobs, or relocating them in other areas—will be required to assist these areas and their populations in adapting to oncoming changes.

The geographic concentrations of defense and other Federal procurement activities reflect, in large part, the emphasis on "efficiency" as a criterion in awarding procurement contracts. In its specific sense, efficiency means obtaining a given quality item or service at the lowest cost to the procuring agency or department. Strict adherence to this rule tends to favor large and diversified corporations, most of which are located in metropolitan complexes.

Two specific Government programs represent a partial modification of the "lowest responsible bidder" policy. These are the small business set-asides program and the labor surplus area preference program. Up to the present, these programs have not led to allocations of Federal contracts with significant consequences for job creation in areas with high unemployment.[40] However, continued efforts are underway to make the programs more effective.

## RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

Federal research and development (R&D) expenditures are highly concentrated industrially and geographically, and have increased steadily during the postwar years. The Federal Government finances roughly two-thirds of all domestic R&D efforts, with half of the Federal funds going to the aircraft and missiles and electronics industries. Three Federal agencies—the Department of

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[40] The basic document authorizing a surplus labor areas procurement preference program is Defense Manpower Policy No. 4 (DMP 4). As originally issued in 1952, DMP 4 provided for (1) a bid-matching procedure, and (2) the payment of price differentials where necessary in order to place procurement contracts in areas of labor surplus. However, since 1954, an annual rider to the Department of Defense Appropriation Act has eliminated the payment of price differentials made for the purpose of relieving economic dislocations. This rider has been construed by the Comptroller General to mean that any attempted set-aside of a total procurement exclusively for a surplus labor area was illegal, because it might not result in the lowest possible price. The "fair and reasonable price" concept was thus rejected in favor of a "lowest price" requirement. At the present time under DMP 4 as amended, only partial set-asides of a procurement are allowed. Furthermore, no partial set-aside may be made unless the procurement is severable into two or more economic production runs. However, experience has shown that in defense procurement the variation in quantity requirements, in many instances, effectively precludes such divisions of production. Until now, the effect of these interpretations is that Federal procurement under DMP 4 has had limited impact on job creation in labor surplus areas.

Defense, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and Atomic Energy Commission—accounted for over 85 percent of the Government's R&D spending in fiscal 1967, reflecting the orientation towards military, space, and nuclear energy programs.

The 10 States which lead in federally supported R&D work are California, New York, Maryland, Massachusetts, Texas, Pennsylvania, Florida, New Mexico, New Jersey, and Ohio (according to fiscal 1965 data, the latest available). These States tend to have above-average proportions of scientists and engineers in their labor force, as would be expected in view of the large numbers employed in R&D projects (as well as other activities in private industry, colleges and universities, and government agencies).[41]

In allocating Federal R&D expenditures, the primary consideration is generally to meet program objectives in terms of the quality and pace of the results, at minimum cost. In most programs, the geographic distribution of the contracts is a secondary consideration. However, in an effort to build up new centers of research in many parts of the country, research funds of several agencies have been directed toward the development of new research capabilities in universities and other nonprofit institutions. For example, the Atomic Energy Commission, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and National Science Foundation have provided support in the form of student fellowship grants and university research contracts to a widening group of institutions. Over the long run, the financial aid should help diversify the location of R&D activity.

Some Federal programs, such as the higher education development programs of the Office of Education, have as their primary objective the development of strong regional research centers. And some regionally oriented Federal programs have strong roots in research and development. For example, both the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Interior have sponsored applied research and technological development programs to solve regional problems of resource development. Furthermore, the Federal highway program encourages research and development on local transportation problems and supports universities in strengthening their engineering and related facilities.

Further progress in diffusing the Federal R&D effort is possible and desirable, but not at the expense of hampering the quality or slowing the pace of urgent national programs. The Independent Study Board concluded:

> . . . New programs, financed by new appropriations, must be established for encouraging science and technology in the less developed regions. This is preferable to a redistribution of funds under existing programs since it would avoid cuts in allocations to existing strong centers. A wider distribution of Federal R&D funds alone would not necessarily contribute fundamentally either to regional economic development or to development of colleges and universities.
>
> . . . Science and technology can contribute most to development in those regions which build up appropriate preconditions, such as a vigorous educational system at all levels, high quality of local government and environment, living conditions which attract R&D personnel, and institutions—public and private—attuned to innovations.[42]

## TRANSPORTATION PROGRAMS

Transportation is, at once, a significant generator of employment and a part of the overall structure necessary for economic growth, regionally as well as nationally. It is an important factor not only in the location of industry within a region but also for transportation-sensitive industries, as between different regions. The absence of good transportation has often meant economic stagnation, most recently in inner-city business districts.

Federal transportation programs and policies therefore have important effects on economic growth and the location of industry and jobs. Among the programs administered by the Department of Transportation, the most significant from this viewpoint is the Federal aid to highways program. This includes both the interstate highway system connecting major metropolitan centers and the primary and secondary highway (ABC) system.[43]

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[41] For a discussion of the relationship between regional economic trends and scientific and engineering employment, see *Geographic Concentration of Scientific and Technical Manpower and Regional Economic Growth* (Washington: National Planning Association, June 8, 1965).

[42] *Report of the Independent Study Board*, pp. 40–41.

[43] The interstate highway sytem is 90 percent federally financed. Besides connecting the major metropolitan centers, it serves a major defense function. Funds are apportioned among the States on the basis of the State's share of the total estimated cost of the entire system. With respect to the ABC system, Federal law stipulates that 45 percent of each State authorization is for primary roads, 30 percent for secondary, and 25 percent specifically for urban portions of both road systems. All ABC funds are on an equal share matching basis with the States, except in some western States with large areas of Federal land.

Any program as large as Federal aid to highways is an important generator of employment (funding for the two systems amounted in 1967 to about $4 billion per year). Construction is one of the industries most directly affected by the highway system. Additional employment is also generated in the numerous industries that provide equipment and services to the businesses and employees directly involved in highway construction, as well as by the multiplier effects of highway expenditures on employment in consumer-goods industries.

The effect of highways on the location of industrial development has been demonstrated by many studies. It is made very plain by the clusters of new plants along circumferential highways, such as Route 128 around Boston and the Capital Beltway around Washington, D.C. These beltways have undoubtedly speeded the growth of industry in the rings around cities and the movement of plants to these areas, often from downtown locations.

Expansion of nonfarm industries and employment in rural areas will also depend heavily on an improved system of highways and access roads. By improving accessibility, highways widen market areas, increase farm productivity, and facilitate off-farm employment. They have also facilitated the attainment of new standards of rural living by opening up opportunities for urban shopping, recreation, and other types of social activity.

Road systems have also played a crucial role in the development of suburbia. The present pattern of commuting from suburbs to central city jobs would have been impossible without an extensive network of roads, although many other factors have, of course, contributed to the movement of population to the suburbs.

Federal aid to highways is not the only transportation program that has regional location implications. Federal grants have long been essential to insure the survival of U.S. registered shipping and the American shipbuilding industry. Geographically, the port cities and the localities with shipbuilding facilities may be regarded as the principal beneficiaries.

Federal programs related to air transportation and airport facilities influence airline routes and service. They particularly favor medium-sized cities and some smaller ones, which might otherwise be far from air transportation or have only good-weather service. In addition, programs designed to stimulate inland waterborne transportation enable carriers to compete with railroads for the shipment of bulky commodities and thus aid river and lake ports.

The High Speed Ground Transportation program is an experimental project of passenger rail travel in the Boston-Washington corridor, designed to test consumer interest in improved intercity rail service. In addition, public transit programs to combat intracity congestion will aid metropolitan core areas in their struggle to retain or attract industry. These systems should also be designed to help residents of city slum areas reach outlying employment opportunities.

Federal transportation policies and programs thus have differential geographic impacts on industrial development and employment growth. These programs provide better transportation, where needed, to accommodate growth and also to assist disadvantaged areas that have inadequate transportation systems. They are fundamental to economic and employment growth in depressed and lagging regions.

## OTHER PROGRAMS

### Mining and Mineral Resources

The programs of the Bureau of Mines in the U.S. Department of the Interior are concerned with meeting the total national demand for minerals. However, economic mineral resources are found only in certain regions. So programs to increase production of a specific mineral have differential State and regional impacts.

Bureau of Mines programs with significant regional impact include research to improve iron ore recovery techniques, which has helped the Upper Great Lakes area, and contributions to the development of automation in the coal industry, which have benefited many parts of Appalachia and other coal mining areas as well. Research into the potential of oil shale formations has brightened the employment and production outlook in Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming.

Among the other programs with geographic implications are a conservation program for helium, and exploration of techniques to define and recover mineral deposits in the marine environment. Also, the Bureau of Mines is evaluating the potential of mineral resources in Alaska and assisting in the development of Appalachia through contracts to reclaim land damaged by surface mining or mine caving and to control mine fires.

### Government Enterprises

Government enterprises and related programs—including the postal system and the programs of the Corps of Engineers—have important direct and indirect influences on the location of business and of jobs. Examples of direct effects are Federal installations (post offices, TVA, Bonneville Dam) and the procurement activities connected with them. An example of indirect effects would be the attraction of various energy-using industries to sites with low-cost power made available through federally financed dams and electric-generating facilities. Even the postal system has some important indirect locational influences; for example, the fact that postage charges for books and magazines and other periodicals are determined by weight, not distance, enables these types of printing to be performed in areas where the labor cost is lowest, without regard to differential transportation costs.

The Water Resources Development program of the Corps of Engineers has many direct effects on regional and local economies and indirectly influences the location of industries and jobs. Some of the factors that influence business location and thus help to expand employment opportunities are: the availability of low-cost hydropower, water transportation, flood-free lands, adequate water supplies of quality suitable for industry, and recreational opportunities, which are afforded by water resources projects. It is in this context of encouraging economic growth that the Corps of Engineers is formulating water resources plans for Appalachia in connection with the Appalachian Regional Development program.

### Small Business

Through a variety of loan and loan-guarantee programs, the Small Business Administration (SBA) helps small businessmen in all parts of the country. That the SBA has a potentially important role to play in depressed areas or neighborhoods is suggested by the fact that business establishments in such neighborhoods are often small, owner-operated units and by the great need for expanded business opportunities for residents of ghetto areas.

The SBA has recently undertaken, as part of its overall program in the small business field, cooperative efforts with other Federal agencies to stimulate economic growth and manpower development in depressed areas. Arrangements have been made with HUD aimed at developing more business opportunities for city people in low- and moderate-income neighborhoods. The purpose of this plan is to encourage the use of both FHA mortgage insurance and SBA loan and management assistance in developing rental space for small businesses, providing them with commercial services, and developing their entrepreneurial skills. The SBA has also arranged with the Department of Agriculture to bring the loan programs to the attention of small businessmen in rural areas.

Under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, people with low incomes can be given financial help in setting up new businesses or strengthening established ones. So far, loans under this provision have amounted to $39 million between December 1966, when the program was transferred to SBA, and the end of 1967.

The SBA's Local Economic Development Loan Program has potentiality for aiding distressed localities, including many which have been adversely affected by the departure of major industrial plants. Financial assistance can be provided to State development corporations and local development companies, on the condition that this is used to aid eligible small businesses. Under the local development company program, loan projects totaled 338 during 1967—most of them in small communities of 10,000 or less. About one-fourth of these loans were placed in depressed areas such as Appalachia. The others were used to assist communities in diversifying their industries, or to expand businesses and thus stimulate the community's economic growth. The SBA estimates that, all told, nearly 12,000 jobs were created by these loans.

### Agriculture

A variety of programs operated by the Department of Agriculture—for example, acreage control, farm price subsidies, and agriculture extension services—have differential regional effects This, in part, reflects the concentration of agricultural activities in some regions—especially the South and the West North Central States.

In addition, the Farmers Home Administration has been concerned with farm area development and poverty. This agency operates a variety of loan programs to help improve community living standards and alleviate rural poverty—construction loans, economic opportunity loans, aid to family farmers, and loans for housing improvement.

The Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture has had some impact on rural economic development. The Department estimates that, during 1966 and 1967, new projects relating to agricultural marketing and processing and business and industrial development, including recreation and tourism, were instrumental in creating about 150,000 new jobs in rural areas. Water and sewer projects were among the most important, followed by school, health, and recreational programs.

It has been emphasized that the rural population has not shared equally in the fruits of economic progress and that rural poverty is a national concern. Many of the programs outlined earlier in this chapter have a strong rural focus.

But beyond this, the economies of both urban and rural areas are highly interdependent and require complementary programs for sustained economic progress. Over the long run, a balanced rural-urban development would use the Nation's resources most effectively and provide maximum opportunities for employment and for improving the quality of life.

## Conclusion

Present geographic patterns of affluence and poverty, of economic growth and decline, in the United States are the outcome of countless interacting developments. They reflect decisions over many years by businessmen to seek out the areas where, with the existing resources and foreseen economic and technological conditions, they could most effectively produce and market and by workers to move to places offering promise of better employment opportunities. Underlying these decisions have been the technological advances that, within relatively short periods, revolutionized the country's transportation system, diminished the economic importance of coal, cut into the demand for cotton and woolen textiles, and forced millions of farm people to seek nonfarm jobs, to cite just a few examples.

Developments such as these have made possible the Nation's economic growth and generally advancing standard of living, but they have had a very uneven geographic effect. Although most localities have benefited, some have suffered economic decline and distress.

The presence of natural resources and, in some cases, their depletion have also been basic factors in the economic fortunes of many areas. The changing ratio of immigration—induced by the search for political freedom and economic opportunity, and limited in the past several decades by legislative restrictions—has had a profound effect on the inflow of workers, particularly into urban areas. Government decisions with respect to the location of facilities and other programs and policies have also affected thousands of communities, their industries, and workers. In addition, demographic and social factors—such as the above-average fertility rates in rural areas and the frequent discrimination against Negroes and other minority groups in employment and housing—have had a great influence on migration and the concentrations of unemployment and poverty in both rural and urban communities.

To some extent, the economic development of particular regions of the country has been purposive. More than a century ago, the Homestead Act of 1862 focused efforts on development of the West. More than 30 years ago, the Tennessee Valley Authority was set up to develop one part of the South. But in the main, as the illustrations just cited suggest, this country has drifted into new patterns of employment location—on the shifting currents of technological change, product demand, and job and profit seeking—and then has had to cope with the economic and social consequences of these patterns.

A new national determination to meet the problems of people in depressed areas by cooperative governmental and private action is reflected in the economic development programs of the past 7 years. Because of the wide differences in both problems and potentialities among the various redevelopment areas, these programs are necessarily flexible and utilize a variety of approaches to their common goal of economic development and job creation. But they share certain basic features. Along with development of community resources and other incentives to business expansion, there is general emphasis on strengthening of education and training—with the twofold aim of qualifying workers for the expected new jobs and of supplying the trained work force needed to attract business to the area.

Implicit in the development programs is recognition that many depressed labor areas have the potential for regeneration, and also that there are communities with promise as growth centers within all the broad development regions. But it is also recognized that the processes which have brought economic decline to particular areas are not likely to be reversed without outside help. An area where employment opportunities are poor tends to lose workers by net out-migration. Thus, it has a weakened labor force, and so is further handicapped in holding its present businesses and attracting new ones.

The redevelopment programs are, of course, aimed directly at arresting this vicious cycle in as many areas as is economically feasible. How many areas can and will be thus assisted is still very uncertain. But clearly, not all depressed areas can expect to achieve future growth, and hence it will continue to be necessary for many workers to seek jobs elsewhere. With improved highway systems, larger numbers will able to commute to jobs in nearby growth centers. But further migration from a good many areas will also be necessary.

One of the most basic questions which has to be confronted in economic development programs has been stated in overly simplistic terms—whether workers should move to jobs or jobs to workers. Even to pose the problem in this way is to distort it; both types of movement will certainly be required and must be facilitated and aided. The real question—to which no satisfactory answer has yet been developed—is what combinations of program efforts in these two directions would be most beneficial in both economic and human terms.

This is a question which can be analyzed satisfactorily only on an area-by-area basis, in the context of the overall national economy. The potentialities of depressed areas should be evaluated separately, together with the characteristics of their workers and the opportunities which can be foreseen for them elsewhere. And in developing program plans, account should be taken of the relative costs and benefits to the Nation, as well as the particular area and its workers, of migration as compared with local economic development.

Usually, by facilitating the movement of workers and industry to the areas where they can be most productive, the national output of goods and services will be maximized and higher overall levels of living achieved. However, the desirability of maximizing national output is only a general guide to policy. A strict efficiency criterion for the short run may hurt long-run productivity and, in any event, ignores other important goals. Rigid adherence to this criterion in program development could mean leaving many distressed areas stranded and still declining, with hardship to the people unable or unwilling to migrate. It may also, in many cases, cause waste of existing social capital and failure to develop resources of potential value over the long run. The economic and technological history of the country demonstrates that the demand for particular resources (for example, coal) can have upswings as well as declines, with corresponding effects for the areas economically dependent on these resources. And the increasing concentration of low-income population in many inner-city slum areas must be considered in connection with any program decisions that might stimulate further migration to such areas.

The development of manpower objectives for different geographic areas and for the Nation as a whole thus involves great complexities and almost inescapable incompatibilities. Though the programs devised to forward these objectives will often reinforce each other, this is not always possible. Short-term objectives may conflict with long-term ones. Improvements of opportunity in one area may lead to an actual or potential loss of opportunity elsewhere.

It is essential that there continue to be a wide range of programs aimed at mitigating geographic inequities in employment opportunites and worker well-being. And it is equally essential that relationships among these programs be continuously evaluated in terms both of objectives and of actual effects, so that conflicts can be minimized. We need to work toward a consistent geographic strategy for manpower and economic development policy which would link together the various geographic objectives and programs.

What are some of the issues which must be confronted in moving toward such a strategy? The first relates to *factfinding and research*. How and to what extent can the employment potential of different areas be better evaluated? How and to what extent can appraisals be made of the relative costs and benefits of alternative action programs aimed at meeting the employment and subsistence needs of people in different localities?

Factfinding and analysis on these fundamental questions are now hampered by the fragmentary and discontinuous nature of the data available for specific areas and regions. Furthermore, the techniques of cost-benefit analysis and also of systematic projection of economic and manpower trends for different areas, integrated with national projections, are still at an early stage of development and application. These informational inadequacies are recognized by many serious investigators in both Government and private agencies. It is essential to make rapid progress in improving both basic data and analytical and projection techniques in order to provide better guidelines for program development.

Second, with *private job creation* as a prime objective in areas with potential for redevelopment, should present measures to stimulate business expansion be strengthened and supplemented? As better information becomes available for various areas, this is likely to underline the wide differences in the nature and severity of their problems, but it should also help to pinpoint the kinds of program action called for in each situation. In many cases, investment in public facilities such as highways, waterworks, and sewer systems will be essential to start the process of industrial expansion. Frequently, financial incentives such as low-cost loans or tax rebates may be needed. The critical problem is to provide, in each case and within the limits of available resources, the combination of facilities and incentives that will be most effective in starting a self-sustaining, progressive expansion in private employment.

Third, the geographic impact of both *Government procurement and transportation policies* and *decisions regarding the location of facilities* needs to be continuously reviewed. The magnitude of Government procurement and investment in transportation suggests that these could be powerful tools for reducing interarea differences in unemployment.

Despite the other important and often overriding reasons for the location of Government suppliers, there is need to determine whether any increase in total social cost would be entailed in departing from the prevailing practice of allocating contracts on the basis of the lowest money cost to the procuring agency. In this calculation, consideration should be given, for example, to the saving to society if welfare and other benefits could be reduced by placing orders in areas of high unemployment. In addition, decisions as to the location of Government facilities and of transportation investments should take account of the job market situation in particular local areas and of whether the opening of new facilities there would have the constructive effect of relieving unemployment or, conceivably, the negative one of intensifying already existing labor shortages.

A fourth broad issue relates to the policies that should be followed in *vocational education and training*. To what extent should youth be prepared for occupational opportunities existing or anticipated in the immediate local area? To what extent should their occupational preparation be planned in the light of national trends? For example, should opportunities for training in nonfarm jobs be increased in agricultural areas, so as to ease the transition from farm to nonfarm employment for the many youth and adults who will have to make this change?

Answers to such questions are made doubly difficult by the varying degrees of uncertainty as to the economic and occupational future, locally and nationally. They should be facilitated as projections improve. But they will never be easy to arrive at. In some cases, community interests in training objectives may differ from those of individuals. The economic future of an area may hinge in part on the presence of workers trained to meet local requirements, whereas individuals might benefit most by training to facilitate their outmigration.

Two fundamental educational problems are also involved: First, the extent to which the educational preparation of youth should be aimed at specific occupations or should be more broadly based and designed to provide occupational flexibility; and second, the dilemma inherent in our democracy of reconciling full freedom of choice for the individual with training programs closely geared, in nature and magnitude, to anticipated manpower requirements.

A fifth set of questions relates to the *migration of workers*: To what extent and how should Government attempt to stimulate and aid out-migration from declining areas, to influence migrants' choice of a destination, to assist them in the job and other adjustments they must make in the new environment?

Decisions regarding the extent of out-migration from particular areas which is economically and socially desirable will be hampered until improved information is available on area potentials and the relative costs and benefits of alternative program approaches. However, experimental programs of relocation assistance should provide useful insights into the factors that impede migration and how these can be overcome most effectively. Such programs should also indicate methods of limiting and easing the adjustment problems which arise, for example, when unskilled farmworkers move to cities in search of jobs.

A related question that has hardly begun to be explored is how to reach potential migrants from rural areas before they move, in order to advise them on the choice of a destination and, if possible, give them training for urban employment. The gross flow of migrants in this country is so great that if even a small proportion of them could be helped to make an economically wiser choice of a destination, this could have a major effect in reducing the concentrations of jobless workers in some areas.

In addition, there must be concern for the welfare of people in *places unlikely to achieve economic viability* through redevelopment programs. There are many communities which are too small—and some where economic decay has gone too far—to be helped by redevelopment efforts. In such situations, the paramount question is how and where to provide an adequate basis of living for the residents. For many who are employable or can be helped to become so, out-migration is the answer. For others, income maintenance and work programs of various kinds may be necessary.

A final set of issues relates to the policies that might be followed in working toward a *balanced and integrated development* of the country's different geographic areas. Balance issues arise at several levels of geography. Within specific urban areas, more effective integration between the suburbs and inner city might aid both the rehabilitation of slums and the development of model neighborhoods and urban industrial parks. This would involve not merely linking jobs and residences through an improved transportation system, but also reducing the differentials in socioeconomic opportunities between the inner city and the rest of the metropolitan area. And it would mean solving the central city problems of unemployment and poverty, not spreading them more evenly through the city.

The "growth center" concept in regional development calls for interrelated development of these cities and the surrounding countryside. Functioning as centers of employment growth and also of educational and other services, these growth centers might serve as the nucleus for economic and social improvements in their environs. In turn, they would depend, in considerable part, on the people within commuting distance as both workers and customers.

Perhaps some of the most difficult policy and analytic questions relate to the development of an urban-rural balance. If, as the Secretary of Agriculture has suggested, ". . . we can revitalize the villages, towns, and cities of the countryside and build new towns and cities there, . . . preserve . . . the maximum feasible number of family-type farms," and develop the open countryside, then we may be able to ". . . reverse the flow of population to metropolitan centers, and in so doing, help big cities conquer the urban improvement job by easing the pressures exerted by a constantly expanding population." The full implications of attempting to achieve these kinds of results need intensive study, but programs to achieve urban-rural balance may have profound effects on the future development and well-being of America.

The President, in his message on Housing and Cities delivered to the Congress on February 22, made clear his determination both to deal directly with the critical problems in central cities and to foster new centers of industry and population. He called for a new Housing and Urban Development Act, which would make possible expansion and acceleration of housing construction and rehabilitation and renewal of blighted urban neighborhoods. He also proposed a New Communities Act, which would provide a major new financing method for private development and also offer incentives to State and local governments to channel programs for construction of new public facilities into such communities.

The task of solving present geographic inequities in employment opportunities and levels of living, and of realizing the potentials of all geographic sectors and their people, is not for the Federal Government alone. It will demand active participation by all levels of government and by private industry and local leadership in communities throughout the country. In any event, high priority for analysis should be given to geographic factors in employment and manpower development.

# 6

# REVIEW
# OF MANPOWER
# DEVELOPMENTS
# IN 1967

# TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

The Nation's economy in 1967 started weakly and ended strongly. Against a total performance of only small gains, the renewal of strength at year's end heralded better things to come in 1968, along with renewal of the problems that attend rapid growth. Even though total job gains in 1967 were below those of the 2 previous banner years, and further progress in reducing unemployment was postponed, the country could nevertheless take satisfaction in the temporary nature of the economic pause and the fact that it passed without serious job dislocations. On balance, the economy continued for an unprecedented 7th year without losing the upward thrust of growth which, during that long period, was the wellspring of new jobs and improvement in living standards—for most but not all Americans.

The record of 1967 evoked more hope than discouragement, but nevertheless produced signficant elements of each. Largely because of the faltering first half of the year, the Nation's output of goods and services in 1967 rose by only 2.5 percent over 1966, for the lowest annual rate of gain since the recession year of 1961. It was not a pace that, over any length of time, would be adequate to either achieve or sustain full employment. Such small growth in output cannot provide enough new jobs for the growing population and for meeting the re-

**1967 IN THE CONTEXT OF THE CURRENT EXPANSION**

| | 1961 | 1966 | 1967 | Change, 1966–67 | | Average annual change, 1961–67 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Number | Percent | Number | Percent [1] |
| (Billions) | | | | | | | |
| GNP in current dollars | $520.1 | $743.3 | $785.1 | $41.8 | 5.6 | $44.2 | 7.1 |
| GNP in 1958 dollars | 497.2 | 652.6 | 669.2 | 16.6 | 2.5 | 28.7 | 5.1 |
| (Thousands) | | | | | | | |
| Total employment | 65,746 | 72,895 | 74,372 | 1,477 | 2.0 | 1,438 | 2.1 |
| Nonfarm payroll employment | 54,042 | 63,982 | 66,066 | 2,084 | 3.3 | 2,004 | 3.4 |
| Unemployment | 4,714 | 2,875 | 2,975 | 100 | 3.5 | —290 | —7.4 |
| (Percent) | | | | | | | |
| Unemployment rate | 6.7 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 0 | 0 | —.5 | —9.0 |

[1] Compounded at annual rates.

NOTE: Gross national product and nonfarm payroll employment figures for 1967 are preliminary.

quirements of rising productivity. Neither can it create enough goods and services to raise the level of living and provide the means to meet this country's tremendous social needs at home and its obligations abroad.

Disturbing, too, was the continuation of the previous year's sharp increase in prices and in unit labor costs. The critical question posed at the beginning of 1968 was whether these disturbing trends would continue or whether the upward pressures on prices would ease with the growing abundance of goods, productivity growth increase with the rising scale of production, and wage demands moderate with the recognition of the need for greater economic stability.

The most reassuring element was the continued evidence at yearend of the same sources of strength which, over the long period of growth that began in 1961, added a quarter of a trillion dollars to the yearly output of goods and services and created over 12 million additional jobs in industry. The relative affluence of the great majority of individuals was one of these resources, in spite of the poverty that continued to afflict a significant minority.

As 1968 began, personal income was again rising and a large reserve of savings provided a potential for even greater growth in consumer purchases of goods and services. The temporary imbalance between the rate at which goods were being produced and the rate at which the economy was consuming them seems to have been overcome during the first half of 1967, without serious disruption in the employment situation and without spiraling effects. With the firming of consumer demand, business investment spending resumed its growth, responsive again to the long-range certainties that the population would not merely increase but that its workers would produce more and live better.

Government expenditures at both local and national levels continued to increase to meet growing domestic social and economic needs and the requirements of the war in Vietnam. Although expenditures for defense continued to influence significantly the patterns of economic activity and employment in 1967, these expenditures appear to have reached a plateau during the last half of the year. They were of materially less importance in the rapid growth that resumed in the latter half of 1967 than during the previous 2 years. But even when the Vietnam hostilities stop, as eventually they must, and the conversion of military efforts can be accomplished, vast needs stemming from national growth and urbanization, and the commitment to abolish poverty, will lay a claim on Government that can be expected to continue to require large public investment.

The Nation's manpower resources also demonstrated strength and flexibility in 1967. Women continued to enter the labor force in increasingly large numbers and more adult men became available for work. And even though no further progress was made in reducing unemployment, at least the gains of the past few years were generally maintained. However, the continuation of intolerably high rates of unemployment among Negroes and youth remained a critical national problem.

The slower rate of production during early 1967 somewhat reduced the pressures on labor supply. The prospective availability of more adult men as workers, because of the continued entry into the labor force of large numbers of persons born during and following World War II, provided a basis for expanding economic activity with substantially less threat of labor shortages than had seemed likely 2 years ago.

## Summary of Developments in 1967

The Nation's total output of goods and services rose to $785 billion in 1967, an increase of $42 billion over the previous year. Of this increase, $23 billion, or more than half, was accounted for by rising prices (a 3 percent increase based on the GNP accounts), yielding a real gain in output of 2.5 percent. This rate of real growth was well below the post-World War II average of 4 percent and contrasted sharply—perhaps was a reaction to—the unusually rapid but unbalanced rate of gain of 5.8 percent in 1966. Viewed in perspective, the Nation's total output has risen virtually without interruption since the beginning of 1961, and was over 40 percent greater by the close of 1967.

Despite the pause in growth during the early part of 1967, the economy was able to accommodate the temporary cutbacks in output without severe employment dislocations and to resume growth at a pace sufficiently high to yield gains in most sectors for the year as a whole. The rapid readjustment and resumption of growth preserved the continuity and momentum of economic expansion so important to the social and economic progress achieved in recent years. Continued rapid economic growth has been vital in providing an effective context for manpower programs, both for upgrading the labor force and for razing obstacles to employment of the disadvantaged. The long duration of this growth has brought the country progressively to more favorable ground from which to attack the stubborn problems of poverty and hard-core unemployment.

The significant developments in the rapid readjustment in the first half of 1967 were these:

1. Moderate declines in production worker employment in the durable goods manufacturing industries (about 4 percent from January to July) occurred at the same time as did small gains in nonproduction worker employment and much larger gains in service-producing industries and government. These kinds of diverse movements are often offsetting only temporarily and may lead to dislocation of workers and an increase in unemployment. But during the first half of 1967 there was a general employment expansion and few additions to the work force, so that the dislocations resulted in only small increases in unemployment of apparently short duration.

2. Part of the output decline was accommodated by reductions in hours of work. Since industry had been operating at above the normal workweek, the cutbacks were primarily reflected in reduced overtime hours.

3. Expectations of a resumption in growth were apparently so strong that personnel, especially overhead or nonproduction workers, were retained even during the slack period. This, however, was a factor in the low rate of productivity growth.

4. Growth in the civilian labor force was below normal during the first part of the year, when production was slack.

The pickup in the economy in the last half of 1967 was reflected in these developments:

1. Real GNP rose by nearly 4½ percent, on an annual basis, between the second and final quarters.

2. The labor force rose by approximately 1½ million and total employment by a somewhat smaller amount.

3. Employment on nonfarm payrolls increased by 1.2 million between June and December.

4. Because of the large increase in the labor force, the unemployment rate edged up slightly between the second and fourth quarters, but by December the rate had come down to 3.7 percent.

The contrary movements during the year yielded gains for the year as a whole comparable with many past years, but far below the large advances of 1965 and 1966. In terms of annual averages, the principal developments in the employment situation were:

1. Total employment rose by 1.5 million to 74.4 million in 1967. The increase was 300,000 lower than the previous year.

2. Rapid expansion of the labor force in the last half of 1967 offset the earlier slow growth and resulted in a greater-than-projected increase for the year.

3. The 1967 job increase was slightly less than the expansion of the labor force; as a result, the number of unemployed increased by 100,000, to an average of 3 million. Because of the larger labor force, the unemployment rate remained unchanged at 3.8 percent of the labor force.

4. The number of workers on nonfarm payrolls increased by 2.1 million, to 66.1 million in 1967. The gain was almost entirely in the service sector.

5. Average weekly hours of factory production workers dropped by nearly one full hour to 40.6 hours. About half the reduction occurred in overtime. Despite the shorter hours, average weekly earnings rose by $2.56 to a record level of $114.90, as a result of an 11-cent rise in average hourly earnings to $2.83. If the rise in consumer prices is taken into account, then real weekly earnings of factory workers actually declined by 1 percent between 1966 and 1967.

6. Agricultural employment continued its long-term decline, though not at the same precipitous rate as the year before. Farm jobs edged down by 135,000, about two-thirds the average decline of the past 20 years, to 3.8 million. In 1966, when job opportunities off the farm were plentiful throughout the year, farm employment dropped by 400,000.

Since the end of World War II the total decline in agricultural employment has amounted to more than 50 percent.

7. Unemployment rates for nonwhites (7.4 percent) and for teenagers (13 percent) were roughly the same as in 1966—and still far too high.

## The Economic Background

The pattern and scale of job growth in 1967 reflected the reduced rate of economic expansion early in the year as well as the subsequent recovery. The reaction to the slowdown in production was remarkably small, just as the economic readjustment itself was brief. The slowdown was to a large extent the consequence of a sharp growth in output in 1966 and of imbalances which accompanied that growth. As a result of these and other factors, such as a reduced demand for automobiles and a shift into other channels of funds available for construction, both consumer and business demand fell short of absorbing the output being produced during the latter part of 1966. In an expanding economy, businesses typically accumulate stocks of goods at all stages of production to anticipate rising demands of consumers and intermediate producers. However, the rapid growth of production in 1966 was not matched by demand, and inventories consequently accumulated at an excessive rate.

The inevitable response by industry during the first half of 1967 was to slow down production and procurement of materials to reduce the rate of inventory accumulation. However, unlike some previous inventory adjustments, this period of retrenchment did not feed on itself and lead to a severe overall decline. Since government expenditures were increasing rapidly, employment and personal income were not severely affected, consumer demand continued strong in spite of a high rate of savings, and the effects of the slowdown (primarily in durable goods manufacturing) were not transmitted significantly to other sectors. Both consumer and government expenditures (including defense expenditures) continued to grow, and as inventories came into better balance with demand, the drag on production was removed and the economy again rebounded.

During the last half of the year, output picked up sharply. The third-quarter growth rate in output was 1 percent (i.e., a 4.1-percent annual rate), despite a slower growth in personal consumption expenditures resulting from the auto strike; in the fourth quarter, output rose 1.3 percent (i.e., a 5.3-percent annual rate).

At the beginning of 1968, economic activity was expanding at the same high rate that characterized the last half of 1967. In contrast to the threat of decline faced and surmounted early in 1967, the problem facing policymakers at the beginning of 1968 was that of maintaining reasonable economic and price stability along with adequate growth.

For 1967 as a whole, the principal economic forces which influenced the employment situation were these:

1. The major force for contraction was the sharp reduction in the scale of inventory accumulation. This showed its clearest effect in durable goods manufacturing.

2. Consumer spending continued to grow, but its rate of growth was substantially below 1965 and 1966. After allowance for price increases, personal consumption expenditures were up 2.8 percent in 1967 compared with 4.9 and 6.6 percent for the 2 previous years.

3. Government spending rose at a faster rate between 1966 and 1967 than between 1965 and 1966. Sharp growth in spending occurred both in defense and State and local governments. State and local government spending continued to rise sharply at yearend, but the rise in defense spending slowed from about mid-1967 on.

4. Even excluding the inventory adjustment, business investment in 1967 was weak, showing virtually no growth after 2 years of sharp increases.

5. Housing construction expenditures (adjusted for price change) showed a decline on a year-to-year basis, mainly because of the very sharp dip in construction near the end of 1966, which resulted from the tight money market. Even

though housing activity was on the upgrade virtually throughout 1967, the average for the year failed to reach that of 1966. By the end of 1967, however, housing construction expenditures were well above year-before levels.

6. Consumer savings absorbed over 7 percent of disposable personal income in 1967, the largest share since 1958. The savings rate has not exceeded 6 percent since 1958. Since it seemed unlikely that the extraordinarily high rate of personal savings in 1967 would be maintained, a strong base existed for growth in consumer purchases in 1968. By the same token, a potential existed for increasing inflationary demand pressures if decisions to spend these savings were concentrated or badly timed.

7. Consumer prices rose by 2.8 percent on average in 1967. The rise was a shade under the 1965–66 increase (2.9 percent), but it was higher than the U.S. average for the post-World War II period as a whole. The rate of price increase is still relatively low for a period of such rapid employment growth and low unemployment, but the danger lies in the prospects for even sharper price increases in 1968 as the economy goes into higher gear and pressures of demand increase further.

8. Major collective bargaining settlements in 1967 yielded comparatively sharp wage increases. Despite a somewhat easier job market, wage increases averaged 5.7 percent in 1967 compared with 4.8 percent the previous year.[1]

9. At the same time that wages and fringe benefits increased, productivity gains decreased as a result of the relatively low rates of capacity utilization and economic growth. Unit labor costs rose as a result, placing additional pressures on prices. However, a higher rate of economic growth in 1968, with plant utilization closer to optimum levels, should result in a more rapid rise in productivity and a reduction in upward pressures on unit labor costs.

10. Strikes figured prominently in the economic and manpower situation in 1967, cutting into the potential output of goods and services and obscuring the shift in economic direction during the year. The proportion of worktime lost because of strikes in 1967, at three-tenths of 1 percent, was the highest since 1959 and almost double the annual average for the intervening 7-year period. The size of the 1967 loss stemmed from a number of very large work stoppages (e.g., in the auto industry) and some very long ones (e.g., in the copper and rubber industries).

Major collective bargaining agreements covering approximately 4 million workers expire or can be renegotiated in 1968; in addition, about 4.6 million workers are scheduled for wage increases under previously negotiated contracts. The combined total represents an unusually large number of workers scheduled for wage actions in one year. Several critical labor-management negotiations—in the steel, aluminum, railroad, aerospace, and apparel industries—are expected to have considerable impact on the economic situation. Should there be strikes in these industries, the resulting loss of output could affect the economy as it steers a critical path between stable growth and inflation.

In addition, the amounts of the settlements in the above-mentioned industries (and the patterns they set for settlements in other industries) will figure in the delicate balance between the need to maintain consumer demand through equitable income distribution, and the need to hold down unit labor costs. At the same time, some added stimulus to the economy, "borrowed" from later in 1968, may result from the reported buying of steel products to build inventories in anticipation of a possible steel strike. In the same way, some of the output lost in 1967 because of the auto strikes is being made up in early 1968 and adding to the demand pressures converging then.

The prospect of tighter job markets and rising consumer prices points to larger pressures for substantial wage increases. However, the anticipated higher rate of economic growth in 1968, with its accompanying higher rates of capacity utilization, also makes it likely that productivity will rise considerably faster than its low 1967 rate, partially offsetting the effect of higher wages on unit labor costs.

11. International economic developments figured significantly in 1967 in the formation of policies affecting the U.S. economy and manpower situation, and they can be expected to play an even more prominent role in 1968. The devaluation of the British pound, the deterioration in the U.S. balance of payments position, and the consequent measures proposed for preserving confidence in the dollar, combating inflation, and restraining exces-

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[1] These are averages for the first year of the contract. If increases over the life of the contract are taken into account, the average increases were 5.0 percent in 1967 and 3.9 percent in 1966.

sive growth will be basic forces influencing the scale and pattern of employment growth in 1968. One favorable factor affecting our international trade (and consequently our domestic economy) stems from the conclusion of agreements under the Kennedy Round in 1967 for major tariff reductions on a wide variety of products. These reductions will take place progressively over the next 5 years, and should help the country hold and perhaps expand its trade position in international markets.

# The Pattern of Employment Growth

## INDUSTRY EMPLOYMENT TRENDS [2]

Between 1966 and 1967, 2.1 million jobs were added to nonfarm industry payrolls, bringing the total to 66.1 million. (See table 1.) Although this growth was not as impressive as the 1965–66 advance—when a record 3.2 million workers were added to industry payrolls—it was still above the 1.7 million average yearly gain between 1961 and 1965, and about double the annual increase registered for the postwar period as a whole.

The 1967 slowdown in employment growth broke the pattern of increasingly larger job gains established between 1963 and 1966. During early 1967, nonfarm payrolls showed little net change as declines in manufacturing and construction employment offset gains in trade, service, and Federal, State, and local governments. Overall employment growth resumed during the fall, but at an irregular and slow pace, with the trend obscured

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[2] The employment figures used in this section are based on employer payroll records and provide a clearer measure of industry employment trends than the figures derived from the Current Population Survey of households. The totals characteristically differ because of different procedures and because the payroll figures exclude the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and domestic workers, and count multiple jobholders in as many jobs as they hold.

Table 1. Nonfarm Payroll Employment by Industry Division, 1966–67 [1]

[Numbers in thousands]

| Industry division | 1966 | 1967 | Change, 1966–67 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Number | Percent |
| Total | 63, 982 | 66, 066 | 2, 084 | 3. 3 |
| Goods-related industries [2] | 27, 254 | 27, 476 | 222 | . 8 |
| Mining | 625 | 613 | —12 | —1. 9 |
| Contract construction | 3, 292 | 3, 265 | —27 | —. 8 |
| Manufacturing | 19, 186 | 19, 336 | 150 | . 8 |
| Durable goods | 11, 256 | 11, 325 | 69 | . 6 |
| Nondurable goods | 7, 930 | 8, 012 | 82 | 1. 0 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 4, 151 | 4, 262 | 111 | 2. 7 |
| Service-related industries | 36, 729 | 38, 590 | 1, 861 | 5. 1 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 13, 211 | 13, 676 | 465 | 3. 5 |
| Finance, insurance, and real estate | 3, 102 | 3, 226 | 124 | 4. 0 |
| Service and miscellaneous | 9, 545 | 10, 072 | 527 | 5. 5 |
| Government | 10, 871 | 11, 616 | 745 | 6. 9 |
| Federal | 2, 564 | 2, 719 | 155 | 6. 0 |
| State and local | 8, 307 | 8, 897 | 590 | 7. 1 |

[1] Data for 1967 are preliminary.

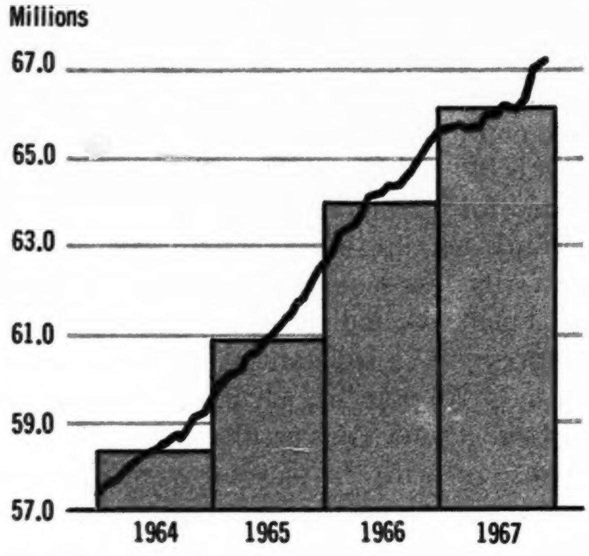
[2] For analytical purposes, transportation is included among the goods-producing industries because its employment has tended to respond to economic changes in a manner similar to the goods-producing industries.

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

CHART 27

**Rise in nonfarm employment faltered in early 1967, but resumed by year end.**

Average annual and seasonally adjusted monthly nonfarm payroll employment, 1964-67



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

by strikes in the automobile industry and elsewhere. However, by the end of 1967, it was evident that upward momentum had been regained. Employment on nonfarm payrolls rose by almost three-fourths of a million jobs between the third and fourth quarters (seasonally adjusted) and at yearend totaled 68 million. Despite the slow growth earlier in the year, the yearend total was 2 million higher than the year before. (See chart 27.)

Industry gains in 1967 were much more sharply concentrated than in recent years of large overall employment growth. (See charts 28 and 29.) Almost 9 out of 10 new jobs were in the service sector, mainly in State and local governments, the service industry, and trade, which together added more than 1½ million workers to their payrolls. Employment in manufacturing industries, on the other hand, expanded by only 150,000 jobs and accounted for less than 10 percent of the total rise, compared with an increase of more than a million jobs or over one-third of the total in 1966. Growth in manufacturing has played an important role in providing relatively high-paying jobs for blue-collar workers since the present period of expansion started in 1961. This growth has accounted for significant reductions in unemployment. The pause in 1967 also emphasized the particular hazard to blue-collar workers of a slowdown in the economy which may result from uneven growth. If this pause represented a temporary readjustment of imbalances, permitting resumption of sustainable employment expansion, it could be regarded as a sign of strength. The short duration and limited effects of the readjustment suggest such a view.

## Manufacturing

Factory output showed little increase for the year as a whole—the decline in the first half being recovered in the second half. Factory employment showed a similar pattern, dropping almost 400,000 on a seasonally adjusted basis between January and July, and picking up again only late in the year. The recovery in the last quarter resulted in an employment gain of 150,000 for the year as a whole.

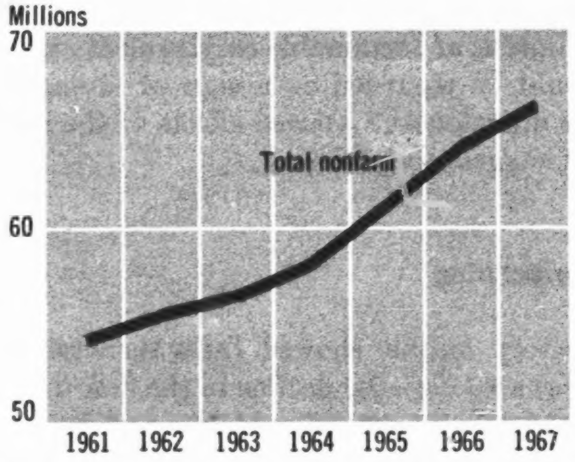
***Durable Goods Manufacturing.*** The most marked slowdown in factory job growth was among durable goods-producing industries. For 1967 as a whole, employment in these industries rose by less than 1 percent, representing the lowest annual rate since the beginning of the current economic expansion in 1961.

Most major industries registered significant reductions in employment during the first half of the year. These declines paralleled cutbacks in industrial production associated with the reduction in inventory accumulation. They also reflected sluggish consumer demand for automobiles and appliances, smaller orders to such supplier industries as steel and fabricated metals, reduced business spending for plant and equipment, and lagging residential and nonresidential construction. As a result, employment in the auto, steel, and fabricated metals industries, and in construction-related industries such as lumber, furniture, and household appliances, accounted for the bulk of the job loss. Even though some of these losses were recovered in the second half of the year as the inventory adjustment drag ended, durable goods employment in the fourth quarter was still 185,000, or 1.6 percent below the comparable period of 1966.

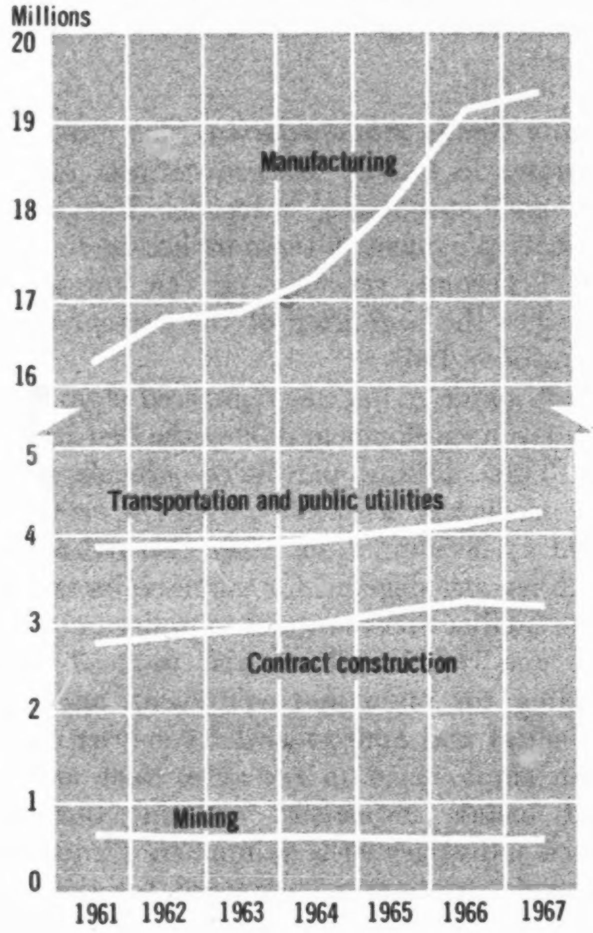
Industries which experienced significant increases in employment were largely oriented to-

CHART 28

**Total nonfarm employment continued to increase in 1967 . . .**



**but there were declines and weaknesses in the goods-producing and related industries.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

ward defense production—aircraft, ordnance, and communications equipment. (See chart 30.) Their employment expanded steadily throughout the year, but the total job gain was not as large as in 1966. Aircraft and ordnance together increased by 110,000 (or 11 percent over the year) and continued the sharp growth that began in mid-1965. On the other hand, employment in electronic component plants declined, apparently because of shifts in the pattern of consumer demand for television sets and reported changes in space program procurement.

***Nondurable Goods Industries.*** Job growth also was weak in nondurable goods industries in 1967. At 8 million, employment was only 80,000 or 1 percent above the 1966 levels with almost all of this gain accounted for by the printing and chemicals industries. While nondurable goods industries are characteristically less sensitive than durable goods to overall business conditions, the growth rate last year represented a substantial reduction from the 1966 rate of 3.6 percent, which was the highest in the postwar period. As a result of a continued failure to keep up with the pace of overall job expansion over the whole postwar period, nondurable goods industries have been steadily declining in their relative importance in the total employment picture. In 1967 nondurable goods employment accounted for 12.1 percent of all nonfarm employment, compared with 13.8 percent in 1957 and 16.3 percent in 1947.

### Other Goods-Producing Industries

In other goods-producing industries—mining and construction, and the manufacturing-related transportation and public utilities industries—the employment situation in 1967 was essentially unchanged from 1966. Employment in *contract construction* averaged 3.3 million, about 25,000 below 1966, reflecting declines in private housing and nonresidential building expenditures and slow growth in outlays for public construction. Even though housing expenditures increased almost steadily during 1967 from the extremely low level reached near the end of 1966, the average for 1967 as a whole was the lowest in 15 years if allowance is made for price changes.

*Mining* employment fell slightly, and at 615,000 was down by more than 10,000 jobs from the 1966 level. The reduction in mining employment was almost entirely due to the nationwide copper strike that began in July, shutting down the bulk of the copper mining, refining, and fabricating industries and affecting about 50,000 workers in more than 20 unions.

In *transportation and public utilities*,[3] employment for the year as a whole was up by about 110,000 jobs, or 2.7 percent. Within this group, railroad industry employment continued its long-term decline, but employment in air transportation, communications, and electric, gas, and sanitary services continued to rise.

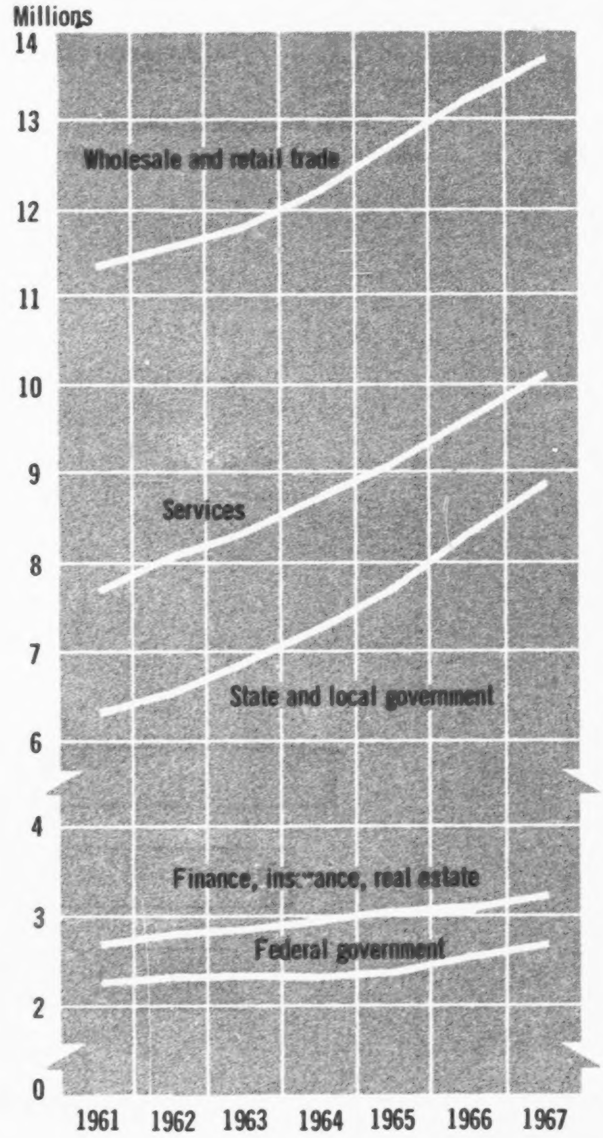
### Service-Producing Industries

As in previous years, the complex of industries providing services—trade, finance-insurance-real estate, government, and the service industry itself—continued to be the chief source of new jobs. During 1967, employment in this sector rose by 1.9 million jobs, or 5.1 percent, to a level of 38.6 million. The continuous growth of the service sector—in good times and bad—not only has been a substantial source of new jobs for the growing labor force, but also has given a measure of stability to the employment situation. By supporting and increasing aggregate income, growth in the services has buffered the effects of layoffs in the more volatile goods-producing industries during economic downturns. During periods of employment expansion, the ubiquity of the service industries has made them a ready magnet for attracting into the labor force groups in the population with labor force "elasticity," such as housewives and youth, permitting the shift of other workers into manufacturing.

Not only was last year's rate of employment increase in the service sector the second best on record—eclipsed only by 1966 when jobs expanded by a phenomenal 5.2 percent—but the gains were also widespread. In the *finance-insurance-real estate* industry, where recent growth has only been average (leading to suppositions about the employment-reducing effect of technological advances), jobs grew at a very sharp pace, increasing by about 125,000—well above the long-term average increase of about 70,000 jobs yearly.

CHART 29

**Employment gains were concentrated almost entirely in the service sector.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

In the *service* industry itself[4] over 500,000 jobs were added last year. This was the only major industry in the private sector in which manpower needs, both in number and rate, accelerated significantly over the growth registered between 1965 and 1966. Employment in this industry expanded vir-

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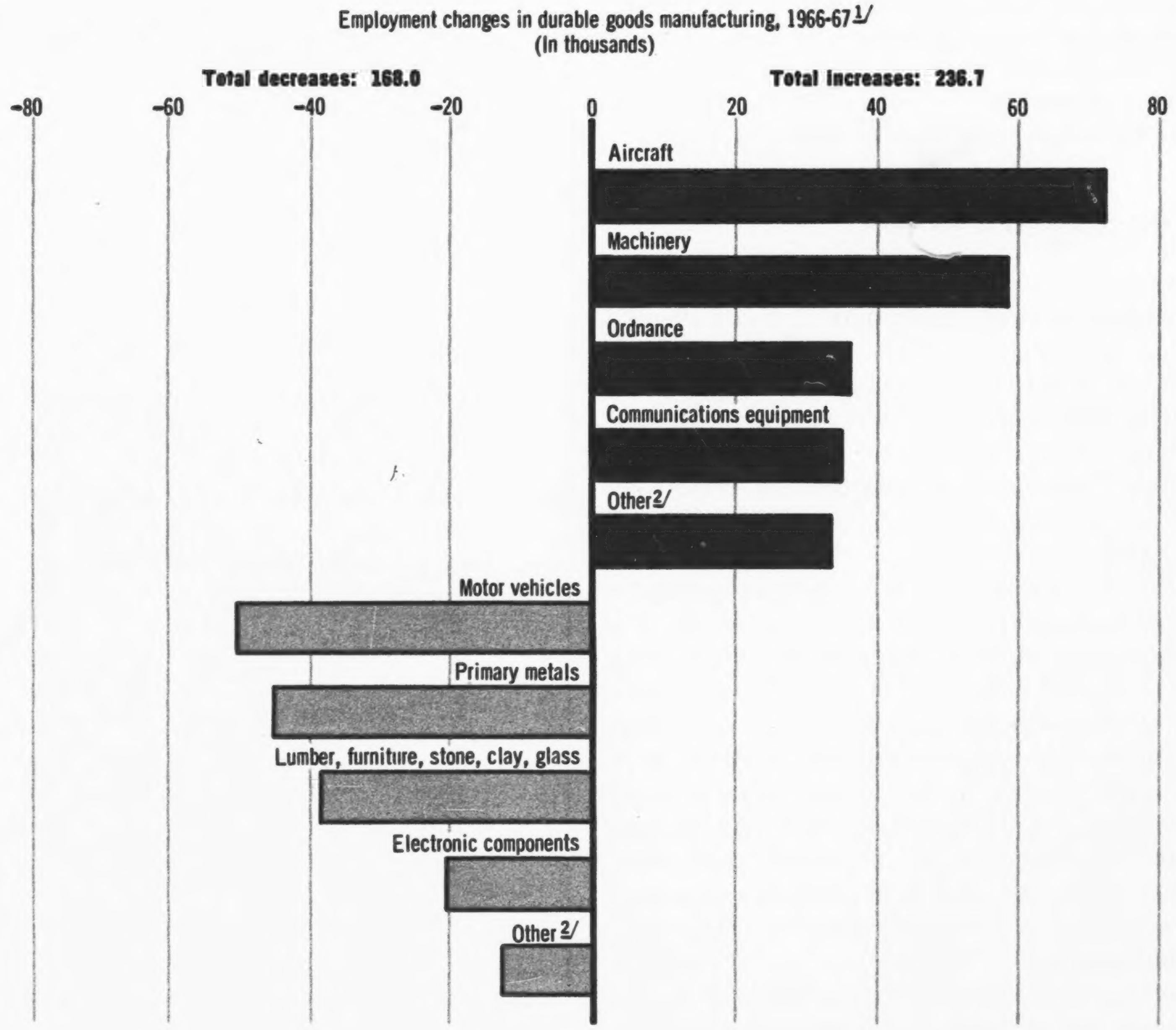
[3] Although these are service industries technically, they are often treated analytically with the goods-producing sector because of their close economic interdependence with manufacturing and mining.

[4] This industry includes establishments rendering a wide variety of personal and business services; it includes hotels, laundries, amusement and recreation enterprises, motion picture studios and theaters, garages and auto repair businesses, private hospitals and schools, medical, legal, and engineering enterprises, and similar service operations. The service industry is treated here as part of the service sector together with trade, finance-insurance-real estate, and government (Federal, State, and local).

CHART 30

## Employment slowdown in durable goods in 1967 affected mainly civilian-oriented industries, while defense-related industries continued to grow.



1/ Preliminary.

2/ Includes industries with less than 10,000 employment change in each.

Note: Components of major industry groups are shown separately only when their employment changes exceeded 10,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

tually across the board throughout the year. Growth was particularly marked in private health services, reflecting the greater demand for health care and its wider availability under Medicare. The importance of the health services as a source of new jobs during the 1960's is dramatically reflected in steady employment expansion of about 100,000 each year from 1960 to 1963 and 125,000 annually since then. By 1967 employment in health services totaled 2.4 million—nearly 60 percent above the level in 1960—representing a growth rate 1½ times greater than for all service industries combined.

Employment in *trade* grew slightly faster than the average pace for all nonfarm industries, increasing by 3.5 percent, or 450,000 jobs over 1966.

Although there was a considerable slowdown in the spring and summer months, reflecting relatively low consumer sales, employment picked up in the fourth quarter with the quickening of general economic activity.

*Government* employment increased at all levels—Federal, State, and local—reflecting the Nation's defense commitments and its public needs in education, health, and protective services. Altogether, government payrolls were up by 750,000 in 1967, 7 percent higher than in 1966. Of this increase, almost 600,000 was in State and local governments, and two-thirds of that in school systems.

Federal Government employment continued the rise begun in 1965 after almost a dozen years of little or no growth. During this 1965 to 1967 period, civilian employment in Federal agencies rose by almost 350,000, and the 1967 yearly average of 2.7 million was the highest level since World War II. About one-half of this increase occurred in the Department of Defense and about one-fifth in the Post Office Department. The remainder of the increase included employment in service functions, as well as in new and expanded social, economic, and welfare programs.

Virtually all of the increase in 1967 took place in the first half of the year and Federal employment reached a peak of 2.8 million in July. In the second half of the year there was a moderate reduction in Federal payrolls, and by yearend the employment level was back to 2.7 million, or 40,000 above December 1966 levels.

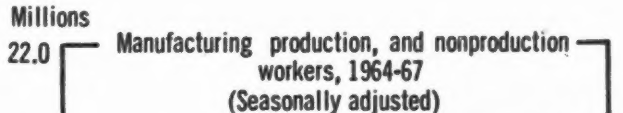
## Production and Nonproduction Worker Employment

As in previous periods of sluggish growth, production workers in manufacturing bore the brunt of the general slowdown. For 1967 as a whole, factory production worker employment was down 50,000 from the previous year, whereas such employment increased throughout the current period of expansion, rising very sharply from 1964 through 1966. (See chart 31.) The lower average employment for 1967 reflected job losses during the first half of the year that were not completely recovered by yearend.

By contrast, nonproduction worker employment continued to expand throughout 1967 for a gain of 200,000 over the previous year, despite the cutback in production. These overhead workers, generally salaried, were retained apparently not only in the expectation of renewed activity, but also because of continued expansion in demand for administrative, research, recordkeeping, and supportive service personnel. This demand has led to a persistent growth in employment of these workers almost without regard to temporary reductions in output. Nonproduction worker employment in the past has fallen back only during severe or sustained recessions. The recovery of manufacturing output in the final quarter of 1967 came soon enough to prevent any significant interruption of the growth in nonproduction worker employment and also was reflected in a renewal of overall manufacturing employment.

CHART 31

**Production workers bore brunt of slowdown in early 1967 after steady employment increases in previous years.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

### Hours of Work

The cutback in total output during the first half of 1967 was accomplished by reducing both hours and employment in the manufacturing sector, particularly in durable goods industries. The workweek in manufacturing started to drop in early 1966, from unusually high levels exceeding even those of the Korean war period, and it continued to edge down irregularly until about June of 1967. From a high point of 41.6 hours (seasonally adjusted) in February 1966—which included more than 4 hours of overtime work at premium pay—the workweek in manufacturing fell to 40.3 hours in May and June 1967, with overtime down by nearly 1 hour (from 4.1 to 3.2 hours).

The cutback in hours could hardly be described as evidence of a severe economic readjustment, particularly since the drop was from an unusually high level. In 1967 factory workers put in an average of a half-day per week of premium overtime work. Moreover, the resort to a reduction in hours was a significant factor in cushioning the impact of the production decline on the overall economic and employment situation. Because it was probably easier to cut back overtime than the basic workweek, and also perhaps because of confidence in the temporary nature of the inventory adjustment, employers were able to reduce their production schedules with limited resort to layoffs of workers. The reduction in hours of work did, however, cut into workers' earnings, offsetting a substantial portion of their higher wage rates. As has been noted, the combination of a shorter workweek and increases in consumer prices resulted in an actual decline in real earnings for factory workers.

On the other hand, it would be too facile to describe the reduction in total output as being entirely accommodated by a cut in the workweek without effect on employment. Between January and June of 1967, seasonally adjusted manhours of production workers in durable goods manufacturing declined by 5 percent. Contributing to this decline was a 3.1-percent reduction in employment (down 260,000) and a 1.9-percent reduction in hours (down 0.8 hour)—in other words, three-fifths of the decline in durable goods manhours was in employment and two-fifths in hours. It is only when the figures on total employment in all nonfarm industries are considered that the effects of the cutback in durable goods employment are "washed out" by larger employment increases in other industry sectors, and the reduction in hours of work appears to be the principal employment development accompanying the decline in total output.

## GOVERNMENT-GENERATED EMPLOYMENT

Government spending in 1967, as in previous years, had a strong impact on employment growth in private industries as well as in government. These employment effects in 1967 were especially marked because spending by private firms and individuals slowed down from their previous rates of growth while government spending accelerated.

Total expenditures for goods and services by all levels of government—Federal, State, and local—amounted to $176.3 billion in 1967, an increase of 14.3 percent over the previous year. This spending resulted in the generation of 23.1 million jobs, two-thirds directly in government (including Armed Forces), and one-third in private industries supplying goods and services to government.[5] Government-generated jobs accounted for nearly one-third of total nonfarm employment, with 12.2 million jobs attributable to State and local spending and 10.9 million to Federal spending. (See chart 32.)

The impact on job *growth* in 1967 was even more dramatic. Government expenditures accounted for an increase of 2.1 million jobs over the year. The increase was almost evenly split between direct government employment and jobs generated in the private sector by government purchases. State and local governments provided the larger part of direct government employment—about 600,000 of the 1 million increase. Of the 400,000

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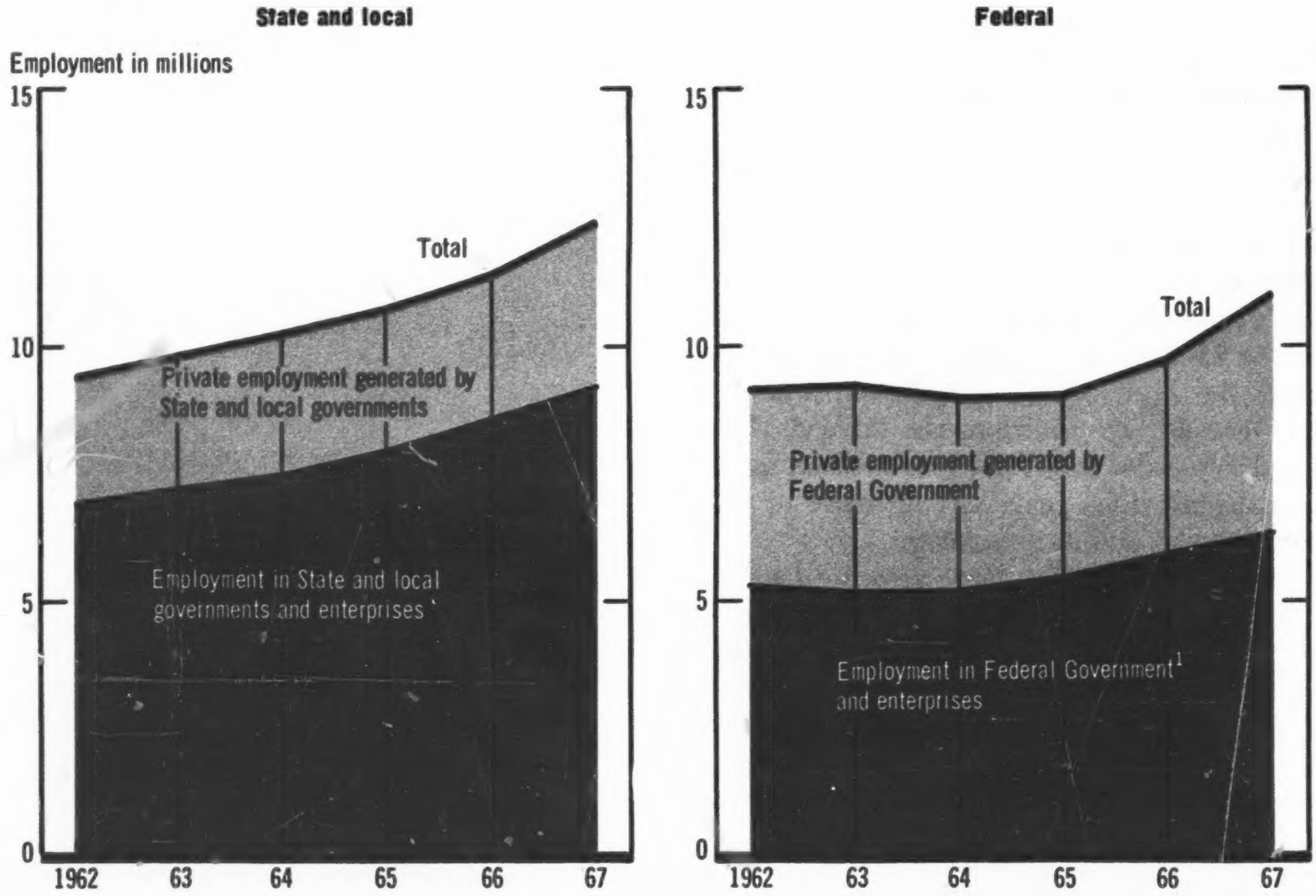
[5] The computations are based on input-output procedures relating employment to the national income accounts. The figures used above on government-generated employment in the private sector include indirect employment generated in supplier industries; they do not include secondary employment generated by individuals spending wages, salaries, and profits derived from government. Armed Forces personnel are included in the totals discussed in this section. See app. tables G-3 and G-4 for more detailed figures on government spending and employment attributable to this spending.

CHART 32

**Employment generated by State and local government spending has increased steadily... that generated by Federal spending has risen sharply in past 2 years—particularly in private industry.**



[1] Includes military personnel.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

increase in Federal employment, 300,000 was in the Armed Forces.

The increase in the jobs generated in the private sector by government purchases was almost equal to the total job gain in the private sector. In other words, the other elements of final demand—personal consumption expenditures, investment, and exports—had no net impact on employment changes in 1967. Thus, employment gains derived from higher personal consumption expenditures were offset by employment declines caused by lower net exports, investment, and inventories.

As a result of the increase in Federal expenditures (90 percent of which was attributable to defense spending), Federal Government employment rose by 400,000 and employment in private industry by 800,000. The Federal employment increase was 100,000 below the record growth of 500,000 between 1965 and 1966. But the increase in private employment generated by Federal expenditures was a half million larger than in the previous year. It accounted for almost three-fifths of the new jobs in the private nonfarm sector as compared with 1 out of 8 in 1966. The sharp rise in federally generated private employment was due primarily to the expansion of defense spending.

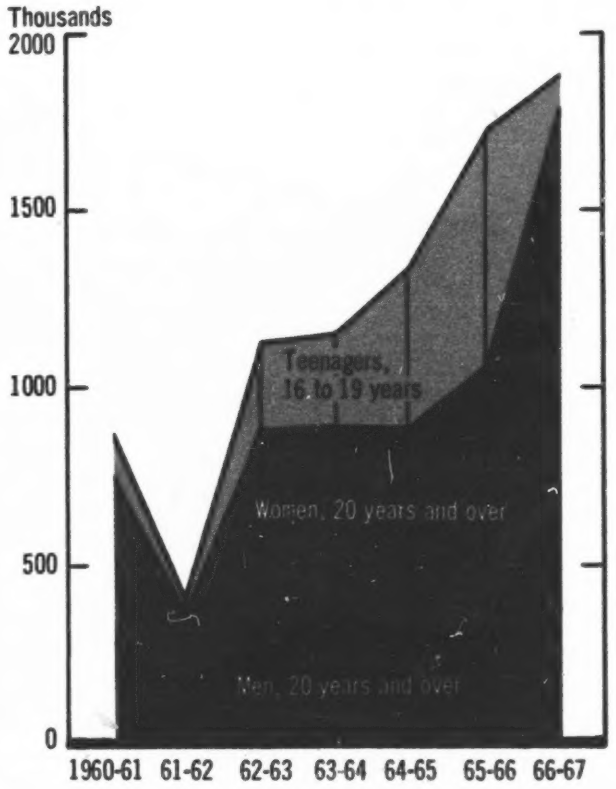
State and local government expenditures, and the employment attributable to them, also rose sharply in 1967, continuing their long-term trend of growth. The increase in expenditures was reflected in the addition of 600,000 employees to State and local government payrolls and 200,000 in private industrial employment.

# Labor Force Growth, Occupational Developments, and Unemployment

The civilian labor force increase of 1.6 million in 1967 was the largest in two decades, and was 300,000 greater than in 1966.[6] The exceptional size of this increase resulted both from the entry of large numbers of adult women into the labor force (an accentuation of an old trend) and also (a new trend) from the increased numbers of adult men in the population, mainly those between the ages of 20 and 34. (See chart 33.) The labor force increases for this age group totaled 500,000, compared with virtually no change in 1966. The increase (in both the 20- to 24- and 25- to 34-year-old age groups) reflected the high birth rates during and after World War II. In addition, the Armed Forces absorbed somewhat fewer men, on balance, in 1967 than in the previous year, leaving more of them available to the civilian economy.

CHART 33

**Annual changes in total labor force of adult men and women, and teenagers, 1960-67**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

The adult female labor force grew by 1 million over the year, or by about 300,000 more than the large increase of the previous year. Fully 700,000 of the increase in 1967 was among women aged 20 to 34, compared with 400,000 in 1966. Population growth and continuing increases in the proportion of women working were about equally important in explaining this unusually large labor force increase.

The size of the teenage labor force was virtually unchanged from the previous year, in contrast to the very large annual increases in the past few years. The large number of persons born after mid-1946 was an important factor in the last few years' increases in the teenage labor force. As the teenage population increased steadily in these years and as these young people moved up through the ages of rapidly advancing labor force participation, the labor force grew dramatically.[7] In 1967, the first large postwar birth group contributed to the increase in the 20-year-old population, and about 4 out of 5 were in the labor force. The slightly smaller numbers born in the years 1948 to 1950 are now resulting in a temporary falloff in new additions to the teenage labor force.[8]

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[6] The monthly Current Population Survey of households is the basic source of the data in this section on labor force, total employment, unemployment, and the statistics on workers according to occupation, color, age, and sex. Interpretation of the 1967 figures is complicated by changes adopted at the beginning of 1967 in the questions and definitions used in the household survey. The most important of these changes affect unemployment status and hours of work.

In order to improve the precision of the data, the questions asked in this survey were changed to fix the timing and the form of jobseeking activities by those without employment. Persons who indicate that they actively sought work in the previous 4 weeks are counted as unemployed. Those who did not actively seek work in this period are now classified as "not in the labor force"; previously they may have been counted as unemployed, depending on their response to certain key questions. On the basis of large-scale experimental surveys conducted in 1966, it was demonstrated that the changes in procedure tend to yield a somewhat lower unemployment rate for men and a somewhat higher unemployment rate for women than would be yielded by the old procedures. Also, fewer persons are counted among the long-term unemployed than under the old procedures.

In addition, probing questions were added to determine the exact number of hours worked. The experimental survey showed more part-time workers and fewer full-time workers than would be shown under the pre-1967 procedures.

The new procedures, while tightening the conceptual coverage and improving the precision of the survey estimates, nevertheless affect the comparability of the 1967 figures with those of previous years. To the extent that it was possible, the effects of these changes were taken into account in the interpretation of 1967 figures when comparing them with those of previous years.

For a detailed description of the 1967 changes in the Current Population Survey, see Robert L. Stein, "New Definitions for Employment and Unemployment," *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force*, February 1967, pp. 3–13.

[7] The rate of participation for young men—counting both military service and the civilian labor force—goes up from about 45 percent of their population at ages 16 and 17, to about 70 percent at 18 and 19 and about 80 percent at age 20. Between the ages of 25 and 45, participation becomes virtually total—97 percent or more.

Extremely large requirements for military manpower in 1966 reduced the number of young persons available for the civilian labor force. But early in 1967, the size of the Armed Forces leveled off. During the year, the Armed Forces increased by about 100,000 compared with an increase of about half a million in the previous 12 months. (Because of the fairly steady rise during 1966 and the slowdown in 1967, the annual average increase came to about 300,000 between 1966 and 1967 and about 400,000 for the previous year.)

## EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONS

The 1.6 million rise in the civilian labor force in 1967 was only slightly greater than the overall rise in employment. Total employment in nonagricultural industries (including self-employed, domestic, and unpaid family workers) rose by 1.6 million to 70.5 million. Agricultural employment continued its long-term downtrend, although at a somewhat slower pace, falling by 135,000 to 3.8 million. The total gain was 300,000 less than the exceptionally large 1.8 million increase in each of the previous 2 years. Virtually all of the employment growth occurred in the last half of the year, with increases of 800,000 (seasonally adjusted) in the third quarter and another half million in the last quarter.

Adult workers accounted for all of the employment gain, with almost 75 percent of the total increase accounted for by men and women 20 to 34 years of age. The 625,000 increase for adult men was 2½ times as large as in 1966 and was surprising in view of the weaknesses in goods-related industries, where employment of adult men is highly concentrated. In this case, the decline in one area of employment was offset by the large numbers of adult men who got jobs in the service sector, including government.

Employment of adult women rose by 900,000 in 1967, equaling the unusually large increase a year earlier. Even with the large increase in men workers, women accounted for about three-fifths of the total gain in employment. Teenage employment was unchanged after rising sharply by 700,000 in 1966.

### Full-Time Schedules

The relatively small growth in full-time jobs was one of the more disappointing developments in 1967. Between 1963 and 1966, persons on jobs usually scheduled for 35 or more hours a week accounted for more than 80 percent of the growth in nonagricultural employment, while in 1967 they accounted for less than one-third of the increase.

Some of this decline was more apparent than real. The change in procedures for collecting information on hours from the survey of households, which was adopted at the beginning of 1967 to get more precise results, was partly responsible for the lower proportion of workers reported on full-time schedules in 1967. However, even after allowing for this change, a significant part of the decline appeared to stem from the weaker demand for labor in the durable goods industries. Employment growth in these industries is preponderantly in full-time jobs, in contrast with the trade and service industries, where much of the recent growth has been in part-time jobs.

The number of nonfarm workers employed part time because of slack work, inability to find a full-time job, and other economic reasons was unchanged in 1967 (after allowing for measurement changes). There had been successive reductions in the size of this group during the preceding 3 years.

### Occupational Trends

The slower growth in the output of goods-related industries in 1967 also resulted in a relatively small increase in blue-collar employment. By contrast, the increase in white-collar jobs, amounting to 1.2 million in 1967, equaled the exceptionally large increase of a year earlier.

Employment in blue-collar occupations, which had shown little growth in the fifties, began to increase substantially between 1961 and 1966, reflecting the rapid and sustained growth of the economy and particularly the goods-producing sector. Employment increases among blue-collar workers averaged about 700,000 a year during this period, providing job opportunities for many poorly educated and poorly trained workers, as well as for skilled workers. In 1967, however, blue-collar employment rose by only 300,000.

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[8] A new period of high births started again about 1951, suggesting that larger increases in the teenage labor force will probably resume in 1969 and continue for a decade.

Moreover, nearly all of the blue-collar increase in 1967 was accounted for by craftsmen, for whom training requirements are normally very high. Employment among both operatives and laborers was virtually unchanged over the year. The rapid pace of economic growth in 1966 had been responsible for creating a substantial number of new jobs for operatives, and even for upgrading many laborers into operative positions.

The substantial increase in white-collar jobs in 1967 was divided almost equally between professional and technical workers and clerical workers. The increase for professional-technical workers (570,000) was the largest on record. In the course of two decades they have doubled their relative importance in the total job picture—from 6.6 percent of all employed workers in 1947, to 9.9 percent in 1957, and 13.3 percent in 1967.

However, despite the continued substantial increases in white-collar employment in 1967, Employment Service reports indicate an easing in demand for engineers, scientists, and technicians. A year earlier, during the height of the economic expansion, shortages in these occupations were more widespread and hiring specifications less rigid.

Private household employment dropped by nearly 150,000 in 1967. This was the third straight year of decline in this occupation despite the steadily increasing numbers of working married women who presumably require household assistance. The lack of acceptable working conditions and status, as well as the difficulty in obtaining wages comparable to those typically offered by industry, seemingly has made domestic service unattractive to many women workers.

On the whole, the major employment gains in 1967 were made by white-collar workers and skilled craftsmen—workers who by and large are the best trained and best paid. There were virtually no additional opportunities for unskilled and semiskilled workers. In essence, this characterized the vulnerability of less skilled workers to any slowdown in overall economic activity. Employment opportunities can be expected to favor better skilled workers in the long run, and there will be proportionately more jobs available for such workers. However, for the very substantial numbers of workers who are only qualified—and are needed—to carry out the many low-skilled functions in our economy, new job opportunities and the chances for raising living standards that come from a steady income will depend to a very great degree on sustained and rapid economic growth.

## UNEMPLOYMENT

On balance, the unemployment situation in 1967 was about the same as in the previous year. Total unemployment averaged 3 million, slightly (100,000) above the 1966 level. The 1967 rate of unemployment, at 3.8 percent, was the same as for 1966 because of the large labor force growth.

Changes in unemployment during the course of the year were somewhat different from what might have been expected from the movements in employment. The rate of unemployment edged up gradually during the year, from 3.7 percent in the first quarter to 4 percent in the final quarter (actually reaching 4.3 percent in October) as labor force growth outpaced employment growth by small margins, even during the sharp pickup in employment in the last half of the year. However, in the last 2 months of the year the unemployment rate dropped sharply, so that by December it was back to the same low point as at the beginning of the year. Not since 1953 has the unemployment rate been lower than the yearend rate of 3.7 percent.

For the year as a whole, rates of unemployment for most groups of workers were not significantly changed from 1966; not all groups fared equally, however. Workers in manufacturing, particularly in the durable goods industries, were among those with rising unemployment rates. A high proportion of these workers are men with family responsibilities who usually persist in looking for work when they lose jobs, rather than withdraw from the labor force. As a result, layoffs in the manufacturing industries were clearly reflected in rising unemployment. The rate of joblessness for workers in durable goods manufacturing rose to 3.4 percent in 1967 from 2.7 percent a year earlier; for those in nondurable manufacturing it increased to 4.1 percent from 3.8 percent. Nevertheless, except for 1966, the rate of unemployment for workers in manufacturing was the lowest since 1953. Improved opportunities for nonmanufacturing workers—which contributed to an unchanged overall rate of unemployment for 1967—were small, diffuse, and not clearly relatable to employment and labor force changes.

As might be expected from the developments in manufacturing, the rate of joblessness rose more sharply for operatives—from 4.4 percent to 5 percent—than for workers in other occupations. Nonfarm laborers, whose job security is precarious in all but the most booming economies, had a slightly higher rate (7.6 percent) than in the previous year (7.4 percent).[9] Yet the rates for both laborers and operatives were only about one-half as high as they had been 6 years earlier.

The rate of unemployment for adult women[10] went up slightly at the same time that the jobless rate for adult men remained essentially unchanged from the previous year. Although women are not concentrated as heavily in the kinds of jobs where employment growth slackened, the increase in the female labor force was so large that it outpaced job expansion for them. The employment increase for men, however, paralleled the relatively large increase in their work force. Despite the weakness in some of the industries with many men workers, growing opportunities for skilled blue-collar workers and professional and supervisory personnel kept the male unemployment rate from rising. Jobless rates for adult and married men were at the extremely low levels of 2.3 percent and 1.8 percent.

Teenage workers had an unemployment rate in 1967 (12.9 percent) that was essentially unchanged from a year earlier (12.7 percent). However, their unemployment situation may have deteriorated more than would be indicated by these figures because the new techniques of measuring jobseeking activity, adopted in 1967, may have understated the rate of teenage unemployment on a basis comparable with previous years' figures. Moreover, quarterly information shows that their unemployment rate rose from 11.6 percent in the beginning of the year to 14 percent in the last quarter. Apparently these young people were hurt by the earlier slowdown in the demand for unskilled and inexperienced workers and did not benefit from the later recovery.

About 450,000 persons were jobless for 15 weeks or more in an average month in 1967, representing 0.6 percent of the civilian labor force.[11] Although the long-term unemployment count was 75,000 below that of 1966, the decline, in large part, reflected the changed measurement techniques that affected comparability with previous figures. Here again, the slackening in the economy's growth rate may have impeded further improvement in the unemployment situation, and gave additional evidence of the difficulties in reducing joblessness during periods of slow expansion in the economy. Unemployment developments in 1967 suggest that large-scale and intensive efforts are required to protect and create job opportunities specifically for workers who are most vulnerable to unemployment when the economy's growth falters.

## NEGRO WORKERS

Employment and unemployment changes among Negroes in 1967 generally paralleled those for white workers, with little significant overall shift in their relative position. The increase in Negro employment did not equal the large gains of the past several years, but there was evidence of a significant upgrading in occupational status. Negro unemployment, after having declined for 3 years in a row, was (at 7.4 percent) not significantly changed from 1966 when the rate (7.3 percent) reached its lowest point since the Korean war.[12]

Moreover, the rate of Negro joblessness continued to be more than twice the rate for white workers, with the disparity greatest among teenagers. The unemployment rate for Negro teenagers (at 26.5 percent) was not appreciably lower than during the recession-affected year of 1961 (27.6 percent). In addition, the disparity between the unemployment rates of nonwhite teenagers and those of white teenagers (even as high as those are) has tended to increase. Nonwhite teenagers had a rate 1.8 times as high as that for white teenagers in 1961, 2.3 times as high in 1966 and 2.4 times as high in 1967.

Unemployment changes among adult Negroes in 1967 were in opposite directions for men and women; the rate of unemployment continued to decline for men, moving down by about one-half percentage point to a postwar low of 4.3 percent, but for women it rose by about the same amount, to 7.1 percent. Here again, the meaning of the changes was not clear, because the new methods of measuring employment status were partly responsible for showing a lower rate of unemployment for adult men and a higher one for women.

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[9] The difference in the two unemployment rates is greater if allowance is made for changes in the measuring techniques.

[10] See footnote 6, p. 182.

[11] See the chapter on New Perspectives on Manpower Problems and Measures for a discussion of the total number unemployed for 15 weeks or more over the course of the year.

[12] Data used in this section represent all nonwhites, about 92 percent of whom are Negro.

One of the more encouraging aspects of the employment situation of Negro men and women in 1967 was a shifting from less skilled to more skilled occupations, continuing the trend of recent years. Employment of Negro men as white-collar workers, craftsmen, and operatives rose by a total of about 100,000, while it declined by about 50,000 in the less skilled and generally lower paying occupations—service workers and farm and nonfarm laborers.

Occupational changes for Negro women in 1967 also indicated a process of upgrading. Their employment in the rapidly growing clerical field rose by more than 100,000 in 1967 and operative employment increased by more than 50,000. In the 3-year period since 1964, clerical employment among Negro women has risen by more than 60 percent (from about 340,000 to 550,000) and operative employment by about 40 percent. In addition, the number employed in private households dropped by about 100,000 in 1967, continuing a trend evident since 1964. Over the 3 years, the number of Negro women in this generally low-paying occupation has declined by about one-sixth.

## Productivity, Output, and Employment

Growth in output and in production efficiency have been keys to this country's economic strength and to the affluence of its people compared with those of many other nations.

Since 1961, the country's output of goods and services has grown at a brisk rate. The duration of this expansion is unparalleled in this country's modern history; the magnitude has been exceeded only in the period including World War II.

Total output in the private economy has increased by more than one-third since 1961, while the manpower expended in its production has risen by approximately 10 percent, reflecting primarily increased employment rather than more annual hours of work per employee. Fully two-thirds of the increase in output is explained by growth in productivity. It represents the dividend in goods and services available to the American public as a result of increased efficiency. The balance reflects additional jobs, which were sufficient to reduce the unemployment rate from 6.7 percent in 1961 to 3.8 percent in 1967.

Over the entire 1961–67 period, productivity (output per man-hour) increased by an average of 3.4 percent per year, compared with the 3.2-percent average for the whole post-World War II period. The gains during the sixties reflect some sharply different annual performances. Productivity growth averaged 4 percent per year during the 1961 to 1964 period of recovery from recession and resumption of economic expansion. The rate of gain slackened between 1964 and 1966, when output shot ahead and the pressure of sustained utilization of the Nation's productive capacity began to have its effects. In 1967, productivity growth fell off sharply. In contrast to the varying pattern of productivity increase, gains in output were very substantial until 1967. Between 1961 and 1966, output in the private economy increased at an average annual rate of 5.7 percent; prior to this period the postwar average rate had been only 3.4 percent.

Productivity growth exhibits a high sensitivity to short-term fluctuations in output and changes in capacity utilization. Economic developments during the past year illustrate this point dramatically. During 1967, the private economy's output showed its smallest increase (2.1 percent) in the past 7 years. This was reflected in very significant declines in the rates of capacity utilization. Coinciding with these developments was an unusually small increase in productivity. The 1.4-percent increase in output per man-hour in the private economy in 1967 was less than half the lowest rate of growth for any year since the current business expansion began in 1961.

Although there was an actual decline in goods production during part of 1967, employment reductions in goods-producing industries were comparatively small and apparently not commensurate with the decline in output. Part of the adjustment took the form of a shortened workweek. Moreover, the employment reductions in goods production were offset in the economy as a whole by increases in employment in the service-producing industries. Since these industries generally had low rates of productivity growth and have usually been less amenable to technological change, concentration of employment growth in the service-producing industries has made it that much more difficult to achieve rapid rates of productivity growth for the economy as a whole.

Shifting patterns during the year further tended to obscure basic trends in 1967. A revealing picture of the crosscurrents that affected the economy can be drawn by tracing the quarterly movements of total output, hours, and employment. During the first quarter, output declined while both man-hours and employment increased. In the following quarter, the pattern was reversed; output increased while man-hours and employment declined. Although moderate expansion in the economy took place in the second half of the year, growth in man-hours virtually kept pace with increases in output. Thus, by the close of the year, it appeared that the major short-term employment impact of the economic slowdown in 1967 was absorbed by retardation in productivity growth.

Despite the fact that manufacturing output was hardest hit by the economic slowdown, employment for the year as a whole rose by 0.8 percent—substantially less than the year before. However, underlying the overall increase in manufacturing employment was a shift in the proportion of blue-collar to white-collar employment. Production worker employment actually declined while the number of nonproduction workers in manufacturing increased.

Among the factors associated with the 1967 reduction in productivity growth were the employment shifts from blue-collar to white-collar work within manufacturing industries, and from manufacturing to nonmanufacturing industries. Increases in white-collar employment, while tending to boost productivity over the long run, do not usually add to its growth in the short run. Corollary to this, white-collar employment, usually considered overhead, is not as responsive to shortrun production changes as is blue-collar employment; hence it tends to magnify the cyclical impact of production changes on productivity. Because of this relative insensitivity of white-collar employment, the slackening of output growth in 1967 was directly reflected in a sharp decline in productivity growth.

Because of the sharp drop in the rate of growth in manufacturing production—from 8.6 percent in 1966 to 0.4 percent in 1967—productivity growth also fell sharply. The increase in output per man-hour in manufacturing was only 1 percent in 1967, compared with the increase of 2.2 percent in 1966. The coincidental, short-term movements of output and productivity are again clearly discernible.

Farm output and farm productivity traditionally show erratic movements that make it difficult to assess a single year's record, but the 1967 performance appears to have been remarkably good. The Nation's farms, unlike the remainder of the economy, continued in 1967 to display very substantial productivity growth. Productivity in the farm sector jumped by 10.5 percent between 1966 and 1967—almost double the average rate of increase of the postwar period. The impressive gain in farm productivity accompanied the equally impressive increase in farm output of 7.6 percent. In 1966, farm output actually declined, while productivity increased by 4.8 percent. Although the long-term withdrawal of workers from the farm sector continued in 1967, the employment decline was significantly lower than in the previous year.

## Implications of Recent Growth

In the context of a postwar era which witnessed the destructive employment effects of four recessions in a 12-year period, the importance of the job developments in 1967 goes beyond that for the year alone. Employment gains in 1967, although moderate in comparison with those of the 2 preceding years, represented further additions to gains accumulated over a period of expansion now continuing in its 8th year. The unemployment situation, although showing no further overall progress in 1967, preserved very notable improvements made during 6 previous years. A brief review of this entire period gives some dimension to its accomplishments, and points up the problems of joblessness that remain.

The predominant influence governing improvement in the employment situation during the current expansion has been the continuation of a rapid and sustained rate of economic growth. Along with increasing productivity, this growth is undoubtedly the indispensable primary condition for further progress.

Overall, the record of progress since 1961 is impressive. The population has risen by 15½ million, yet per capita disposable income has increased by fully 25 percent even after allowance for price changes. The labor force has increased by 10 percent, yet enough new jobs were created to employ the additional workers as well as to reduce the unemployment rate by 43 percent. The number of unemployed was brought down from 4.7 million in 1961 to 3 million in 1967, from 6.7 percent of the labor force to 3.8 percent. Eight and one-half million more people were at work in 1967 than in 1961, and the total labor force is more than 80 million strong.

The unemployment rate for married men, whose economic well-being tends to be reflected in the experience of the next generation, fell from 4.6 percent to 1.8 percent, a rate many feel may be close to a practical minimum. Substantial improvements were made in the employment situation of the less educated and the unskilled, as well as those better prepared to take advantage of the growing job opportunities. The jobless rates for semiskilled workers (operatives) and for nonfarm laborers, for example, were halved over this period. (See table 2.) The rate of unemployment for adult non-

TABLE 2. LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN 1967, AND 1961–67 CHANGE FOR SELECTED GROUPS

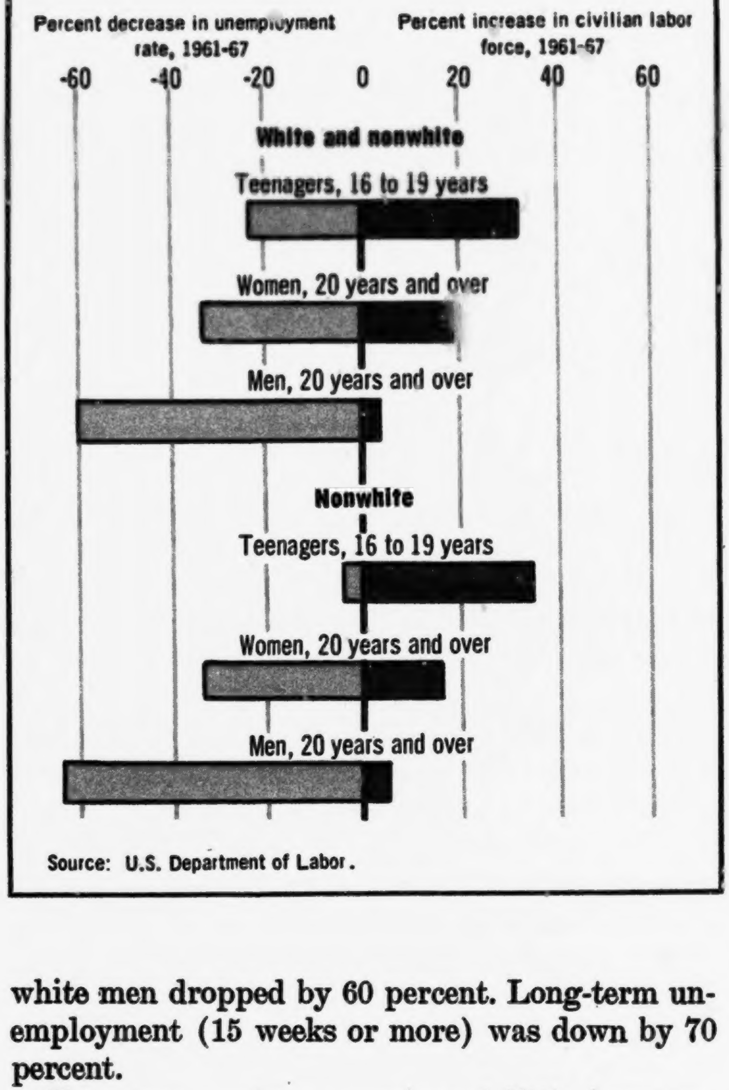
[Numbers in thousands]

| Item | 1967 | | Change, 1961–67 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Civilian labor force | Unemployment rate | Number change | | Percent change | |
| | | | Civilian labor force | Unemployment rate | Civilian labor force | Unemployment rate |
| Total, 16 years and over | 77, 347 | 3. 8 | 6, 888 | —2. 9 | 9. 8 | —43. 3 |
| Total, 16 to 19 years | 6, 521 | 12. 9 | 1, 586 | —3. 9 | 32. 1 | —23. 2 |
| Men | 3, 634 | 12. 3 | 841 | —4. 9 | 30. 1 | —28. 5 |
| Women | 2, 887 | 13. 5 | 745 | —2. 8 | 34. 8 | —17. 2 |
| Nonwhite, 16 to 19 years | 771 | 26. 5 | 199 | —1. 1 | 34. 8 | —4. 0 |
| Men | 443 | 23. 7 | 91 | —3. 0 | 25. 9 | —11. 2 |
| Women | 329 | 29. 8 | 109 | . 7 | 49. 5 | 2. 4 |
| Total, 20 years and over | 70, 831 | 3. 0 | 5, 308 | —2. 9 | 8. 1 | —49. 2 |
| Men | 45, 355 | 2. 3 | 1, 495 | —3. 4 | 3. 4 | —59. 7 |
| Women | 25, 476 | 4. 2 | 3, 813 | —2. 1 | 17. 6 | —33. 3 |
| Nonwhite, 20 years and over | 7, 880 | 5. 5 | 651 | —5. 7 | 9. 0 | —50. 9 |
| Men | 4, 504 | 4. 3 | 192 | —7. 4 | 4. 5 | —63. 2 |
| Women | 3, 376 | 7. 1 | 459 | —3. 5 | 15. 7 | —33. 0 |
| White-collar workers | 34, 985 | 2. 2 | 5, 114 | —1. 1 | 17. 1 | —33. 3 |
| Blue-collar workers | 28, 529 | 4. 4 | 2, 436 | —4. 8 | 9. 3 | —52. 2 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 10, 094 | 2. 5 | 887 | —3. 8 | 9. 6 | —60. 3 |
| Operatives | 14, 611 | 5. 0 | 1, 650 | —4. 6 | 12. 7 | —47. 9 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 3, 823 | 7. 6 | −103 | —7. 1 | —2. 6 | —48. 3 |

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

CHART 34

**Unemployment rates have improved least in groups where labor force increases were sharpest.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

white men dropped by 60 percent. Long-term unemployment (15 weeks or more) was down by 70 percent.

Yet, some workers experienced little improvement. Unemployment rates did not decline much, for example, among teenagers, particularly the nonwhite. (See chart 34.) The number of unemployed white teenagers was almost unchanged (670,000 to 635,000) over the 6-year period, although there was some reduction in their unemployment rate, from 15.3 percent to 11.0 percent, as a result of the teenage population and employment increases. The number of jobless nonwhite teenagers rose over the period from 160,000 to 200,000, and their rate of unemployment was barely changed (27.6 percent in 1961 and 26.5 percent in 1967). Other groups of workers, even after experiencing a sharp drop in unemployment, still had unemployment far higher than the national average. Unskilled industrial laborers, for example, had an unemployment rate of 7.6 percent in 1967. Moreover, the overall decline in unemployment has only exacerbated the frustrations of people living in city ghettos, who do not share equitably in the general progress of the community.

Nor is the current low order of numbers unemployed an indication that we have narrowed the problem to small groups whose condition may be amenable to small remedial programs. Many more persons are unemployed over the course of a year than are indicated in the average shown for a particular period. On the basis of the relationship in recent years between the average and total numbers unemployed, it is estimated that the total number of persons unemployed at some time in 1967 is about 3½ times as great as the 3 million average for the year. The total number who experienced 15 weeks or more of unemployment during the year is estimated to be about 4½ times as great as the 450,000 reported in an average month in 1967.

## PROSPECTIVE LABOR FORCE DEVELOPMENTS

A number of population developments anticipated in previous years became evident in 1967, marking the beginning of significantly different patterns of population and labor force growth for several years to come. Especially noteworthy was the temporary cessation of teenage population growth and the sharp jump in the number of 20- to 34-year-old men and women.

The increase in the adult male population was one of the most significant developments. Adult men have accounted for very little population and labor force growth in recent years; actual declines have occurred among men aged 35 to 44. But beginning in 1967, the adult male population and labor force started to grow substantially, and will continue to do so for the foreseeable future.

The number of men 20 and over in the total labor force (including the Armed Forces) rose on the average by only 325,000 a year between 1962 and 1966. It increased by 750,000 between 1966 and 1967, and can be expected to increase by the same large amount in each year between 1967 and 1970. Men aged 20 to 34 can be expected to account for almost all of the growth in the number of male workers between 1967 and 1970, and for a substantially larger part of the overall labor force increase than heretofore. From 1960 to 1966, adult men accounted for only one quarter of the total labor force increase; between 1967 and 1970, they can be expected to account for about one-half.

Population growth will also result in continued substantial labor force increases among adult women, especially those aged 20 to 34. The increases will be relatively smaller than for men workers in this age group, since fewer women than men work. Moreover, the proportion working decreases among women in their early twenties as they marry, whereas labor force participation is still going up for men in that age group. Between 1967 and 1970 population changes alone can be expected to increase the adult female labor force by 1.2 million or by about 400,000 in an average year, with fully three quarters of this increase among the 20- to 34-year-old women. In addition, increases in the proportion of women working could account for a rise of equal magnitude, if past trends continue. Labor force increases for all adult women, due to their rising worker rates, averaged 300,000 each year between 1962 and 1965 and about half a million in 1966 and 1967.

The teenage population, which was responsible for much of the Nation's recent labor force growth through 1966, but virtually none of the increase in 1967, will increase only slightly between 1967 and 1970. As a result, there should be only a very small increase in the size of the teenage labor force during this period.

These expected changes have important implications for the economy and for manpower policy. The greater availability of 20- to 34-year-old workers, especially young men, will help meet the growing needs for personnel in professional, middle-management and other skilled jobs, which in the past have usually been filled by workers in these age groups. Among the additional workers will be unprecedentedly large numbers of new college graduates. While the relatively small increase in the teenage population, whose rates of unemployment are typically high, may present unemployment problems of smaller absolute magnitude than those faced during recent years of unusually large teenage population and labor force increases, these problems will remain acute, especially among Negro teenagers.

While these prospective changes point to the increased availability of workers for professional and skilled jobs in the next several years, they may also involve potential problems. The forthcoming large increases in the adult work force, particularly among 20- to 34-year-old men, will mean that the economy must continue to expand at a rate that will provide large numbers of full-time jobs. If the weaknesses of the past year in the goods-related sector and the unusually small increase of workers on full-time schedules recur, their impact will be felt primarily by these workers. Continuation of the improvements noted at the end of 1967 becomes doubly important if these workers are to have adequate employment opportunities in the years ahead. Slackening in the momentum of economic growth probably will mean shorter hours or increased unemployment, or both, among workers in need of full-time employment.

Any sizable declines that might occur in the strength of the Armed Forces would make additional skilled workers available to the civilian economy, but at the same time would add to the already large number of young adult men who will be in need of full-time civilian employment. An Armed Forces buildup, of course, would have the opposite effect.

Other aspects of population change will have a critical impact on the employment situation in particular areas. Of major importance is the rapid increase of the Negro population in central cities and particularly in the ghettos of these cities—an increase resulting from in-migration and changing housing patterns as well as from natural growth.

As a result of the expected increasing concentration of Negroes in city slums, an even greater incidence of poverty and unemployment can be expected in these areas unless existing and forthcoming programs to assist slumdwellers are successful. Furthermore, the Negro teenage population in these areas is expected to grow significantly, contrary to the trend for teenagers generally. Particularly strong assistance will be necessary to find employment for these young slumdwellers.

## SOME CONCLUSIONS

In 1967 the country averted an economic downturn and continued instead to complete its 7th consecutive year of expansion. Although gains for the year as a whole were small in comparison with the sharp advances of the previous 2 years, and in some respects no further progress was made beyond what had been achieved before, by yearend the forces of growth were abundantly evident and pointed to a renewal of improvement in the employment situation.

Between the third and last quarter of 1967, the Nation's output increased at an annual rate of over 5 percent, nonfarm jobs at a rate of 2.8 million a year, factory workers' weekly earnings at a rate of about 8 percent, and retail prices at a rate of about 3 percent.

The sharply contrasting situations at the opening and close of the year revealed the complexities surrounding further progress in reducing unemployment and spreading the benefits of stable employment. The slowdown in early 1967—largely a reaction to the unbalanced rapid growth of the preceding year—exposed the particular vulnerability of disadvantaged workers. Large numbers of these workers have only recently begun to benefit from the additional jobs, occupational upgrading, and rising incomes that have accompanied high and sustained economic growth. But the first signs of economic slowdown in 1967 were reflected in layoffs of blue-collar workers and in rising unemployment among unskilled workers, Negroes, and teenagers.

By the end of 1967, with the economy again sharply on the upgrade, the overall unemployment rate and the rates for most (but significantly, not all) groups in the labor force were down to lows which have not been bettered since the Korean war. A typically more delayed recovery characterized the vulnerable groups.

At the same time, renewal of the economic expansion brought to the fore the dangers that attend rapid growth. A convergence of demand forces is possible on a production system that may not immediately be able to satisfy all of these demands. In consequence, rapidly rising prices, increased costs of production, and industrial shifts could result in unbalanced growth and threaten continuation of the progress being made. At a time when the Nation is poised to move on to full employment, a policy of carefully selecting the growth targets that will make the greatest relative impact on the disadvantaged is indicated. This is essential to preserve balance in that growth and protect the gains already made as well as the capabilities for further progress.

It is important, however, to guard against injury to those vulnerable workers who have only recently begun to benefit from the economic expansion, and to continue and intensify efforts at improving the situation of those who still remain disadvantaged. Because those who suffer the indignities of poverty, discrimination, and disadvantage stand in such marked contrast to the increasingly affluent majority, their problems claim special urgency. The following chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs discusses the programs which have been undertaken to reach the disadvantaged and provide them with the skills and other assistance needed to equip them for employment, so that all who want jobs are enabled to obtain them.

# NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS

Manpower policy and programs had three major focuses in 1967—on the concentration and unification of manpower forces to help the Nation's most disadvantaged people achieve employability and decently paid jobs, on greatly increased efforts to involve private industry in the training and job adjustment of the hard-core unemployed, and on new program developments aimed at greater flexibility in meeting the divergent needs of different individuals and groups.

Efforts in these directions began in 1966, as reported in last year's *Manpower Report*. But 1967 saw a great extension of the 1966 beginnings. Some new programs were begun in 1967 also, and 1968 has already brought new developments and may bring others. However, the major thrusts of manpower action this year are expected to be in the same three broad directions as in 1967.

Several new and strengthened programs aimed at speeding progress in these directions were called for by the President in his Manpower message in January. First, he recommended expansion of the Concentrated Employment Program, which was established in 1967 to bring together all manpower program resources in a coordinated attack on hard-core unemployment in the particular local areas where people most need help.

The President also announced that he had "recently directed the Secretary of Labor to strengthen and streamline the Manpower Administration—the instrument within the Federal Government which manages almost 80 percent of our manpower programs." And he proposed that the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System started last year be established on a long-term basis. This system links Federal, State, and local resources in a coordinated effort to reduce unemployment and underemployment.

The major new program called for by the President—Job Opportunities in Business Sector (JOBS)—will be aimed at

> . . . a new partnership between government and private industry to train and hire the hard-core unemployed. . . .
>
> Essentially, the partnership will work this way:
>
> The government will identify and locate the unemployed.
>
> The company will train them, and offer them jobs.
>
> The company will bear the normal cost of training, as it would for any of its new employees.
>
> But with the hard-core unemployed there will be extra costs.

And these extra costs will be paid for by the Government.

Besides finding jobs for disadvantaged workers, both the JOBS and the Concentrated Employment programs will provide the full range of educational, health, and other services required to meet these workers' individual needs, make them more employable, and help them stay on the job. Another highly important new program of work and training for employable people on public assistance—the Work Incentive Program (WIN)— will similarly emphasize a variety of services tailored to individual needs. This emphasis on services to individuals increasingly pervades all elements of the manpower program network.

To support the national manpower program effort, a total budget of $2.1 billion for fiscal 1969—25 percent more than in fiscal 1968—has been recommended. With this budget, the number of individuals served by manpower programs can be increased even more—to nearly 1.3 million in fiscal 1969 from not quite 1 million this year. (See table 1.) Particularly sharp increases over the fiscal 1968 level are projected in the numbers to be enrolled in the school and summer programs for disadvantaged youth and also in on-the-job training (OJT) programs. These increases are largely a result of the new JOBS Program but they also reflect expected increases in private industry cooperation in other programs involving on-the-job training. In addition, increases are anticipated in the numbers served by the Concentrated Employment Program and several other programs.

This chapter reviews the major new program developments of 1967 and also those already underway or anticipated during 1968, including the JOBS Program. With the added resources and capacity for service which are anticipated, these new developments should make possible very substantial progress in all three directions of action already emphasized—a concerted attack on the problems of the hard-core unemployed, enlistment of full cooperation from private industry in this endeavor, and provision of manpower and related services in such combinations as may be dictated by individual needs. The goal is, in the President's words, "* * * to build a network of manpower programs designed to match individual needs with individual opportunities."

TABLE 1. INDIVIDUALS SERVED BY MANPOWER PROGRAMS, FISCAL YEAR 1968–69 ESTIMATES

[Thousands]

| Category and program | FY 1968 | FY 1969[1] |
|---|---|---|
| Total[2] | 970 | 1, 292 |
| Structured training | 492 | 638 |
| On-the-job[3] | 186 | 281 |
| Institutional[4] | 129 | 170 |
| Job Corps | 98 | 98 |
| New Careers | 10 | 13 |
| MDTA part-time and employability training | 57 | 63 |
| Indian manpower activities | 13 | 14 |
| Work-experience programs[5] | 435 | 590 |
| School and summer work | 310 | 469 |
| Community work experience | 126 | 121 |
| General manpower services and program support | 44 | 65 |
| Support to Concentrated Employment Program | 34 | 50 |
| Special Impact Program | 10 | 15 |

[1] Preliminary estimates, subject to revision. Based on appropriations for FY 1968, without allowance for activities financed by carry-over funds, and on President's recommended budget for FY 1969.

[2] Excludes regular placements by the public Employment Service system.

[3] Includes OJT portions of programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), title IV of the Social Security Act, Economic Opportunity Act, and veterans' legislation. OJT components of the CEP and the JOBS program are funded largely from these sources.

[4] Includes institutional training under the MDTA, title IV of the Social Security Act, and some other programs.

[5] Includes the work-experience portions of the NYC, WIN, and other programs.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: *Budget of the United States, Fiscal Year 1969* (Washington: Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget, 1968), p. 145.

## Concentration of Manpower Forces

The Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) and the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) are the two major new efforts, begun in 1967 and scheduled for major expansion this year, to concentrate manpower forces against poverty. The Model Cities Program, with its strong emphasis on manpower development, is another; on a smaller scale, the one-stop Neighborhood Service Centers represent still another. In addition, the Special Impact Program will make possible an intensive attack on unemployment and poverty in particular slum areas through business and community development.

Contributing to these efforts is the Human Resources Development Program of the Federal-State Employment Service system. This program represents a marshaling and reorientation of the system's facilities and services, with focus on helping the disadvantaged qualify for and obtain meaningful jobs.

## THE CONCENTRATED EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM

The Concentrated Employment Program provides a close-knit system for delivering manpower services for the disadvantaged. It began operating in local areas in the late summer and fall of 1967.

Every area program has four principal features: (1) Enlisting the active support and cooperation of business and labor organizations in local communities; (2) providing a wide range of counseling, health, education, and training services on an individual basis; (3) developing employment opportunities suited to each individual in the program; and (4) providing the followup assistance necessary to assure that a job, once obtained, will not quickly be lost.

Concentrated Employment contracts are entered into by the Department of Labor with a single responsible sponsor in each locality. This sponsor arranges for subcontracts as required to supply the services disadvantaged workers need from the time they enter the project through job placement, coaching on the job, and, where necessary and feasible, a second or even continuous "chance."

The local Community Action agencies of the Office of Economic Opportunity are the local sponsors for most of the first Concentrated Employment Programs. They provide some services to individuals (for example, outreach and orientation) and coordinate the total effort. The State Employment Service offices furnish services such as testing, counseling, referral to training, job placement, and followup. Other community agencies, as needed, may provide health services, vocational rehabilitation, work-experience opportunities to inculcate sound work habits, and opportunities for on-the-job training in either private or public employment.

The program began when the Secretary of Labor and the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity set aside $100 million of fiscal 1967 funds to finance concentrated manpower program efforts in certain target areas with particularly heavy unemployment and underemployment. The lessons learned through Jobs Now in Chicago[1] and other pilot programs aimed at increasing public and private employment of the disadvantaged were to be intensively applied. By the end of June 1967, contracts had been entered into for programs in 20 urban slum areas, in the 18-county region of the Mississippi Delta, and in a 10-county area of northern Michigan.

Initial progress was spotty, owing largely to communication and coordination problems and some poor planning. Lack of supportive services such as day-care facilities and the inadequacies of local transportation have been additional obstacles in many communities.

Business cooperation in opening private employment opportunities for disadvantaged workers has been slow. However, some firms have been making earnest efforts to provide employment opportunities. And some have assigned staff members to provide executive assistance to the projects or serve as coaches, who help project clients and employers with job adjustment problems.

Nevertheless, more than 51,000 individuals had been interviewed and screened for the local Concentrated Employment Programs by the end of 1967. Of these, approximately 34,000 had already received services, as follows:[2]

—17 percent had received basic education.

—10 percent had obtained skill training in MDTA projects.

—12 percent had obtained work experience in the Neighborhood Youth Corps, 7 percent in New Careers projects, and 8 percent in Special Impact projects.

—27 percent had completed one or more CEP manpower development projects, and 14 percent had dropped out.

—40 percent were still enrolled at the year's end.

—22 percent had been placed in employment.

—11 percent had been referred to other training programs.

As 1968 began, nearly 15,500 more workers were awaiting placement in a project or in employment.

The Concentrated Employment Program is to be extended before the end of fiscal 1968 to a total of 64 cities and 12 rural areas, and the 1969 budget recommends its expansion to 70 new areas, 35 of them rural. The proposed rural projects reflect a recognition that manpower programs can become disproportionately concentrated in urban areas, and that more and better services for disadvantaged rural people are badly needed.

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[1] See *1967 Manpower Report*, pp. 54–55, for a description of Jobs Now.

[2] The percentages cannot be totaled since they overlap in many cases.

There are still grave problems of coordination. More reliable provision is needed for supportive services. But it is believed that this program can go far toward reducing unemployment and underemployment among the estimated half million most disadvantaged workers in big city poverty pockets and among those in rural areas.

Experience under the Concentrated Employment Program is being closely monitored by independent evaluators, participant-observer studies, and special research studies. The findings of these appraisals will help to guide the future direction of the program.

## THE CAMPS PROGRAM

To meet the need for joint planning and coordinated action in manpower development and related fields, the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) was established in 1967.

This locally oriented system was developed under the leadership of the Department of Labor, with the participation of the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Economic Development Administration of the Department of Commerce, the Department of Housing and Urban Development, and three branches of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare—the Assistance Payments Administration, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, and the Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education of the Office of Education.

The need for joint governmental action in providing manpower and related services is obvious. But there has been little precedent. Each agency draws its authority from different legislative acts, each act imposing its own conditions on utilization of funds. Many agencies function through State or local grantees, or both. The timing of each grant has seldom been closely related to that of others, although the State or local programs involved might be interrelated and even interdependent. In established Federal-State programs, a large element of local autonomy has made immediate local response to Federal stimulus unpredictable.

The CAMPS program began in March 1967. Area manpower coordinating committees were convened in 68 major labor areas to draw up comprehensive coordinated manpower plans for the approaching new fiscal year. The area committees were charged with sharing information in order to identify the area's major manpower needs and problems, to assess the outlook for economic development and the manpower development resources likely to be available, and to develop a comprehensive plan for deploying all available manpower resources, thus avoiding duplication and concentrating services in areas of greatest need.

In the fall of 1967, CAMPS was broadened to include manpower-related programs of the Departments of Agriculture and Interior and the Civil Service Commission. Starting with the current planning cycle for fiscal year 1969, Governors and mayors are being urged to provide leadership in the establishment and functioning of State and local CAMPS committees.

Local agencies, which are closely linked with participating Federal agencies, have provided the nucleus for the area committees. But voluntary participation has been urged on other agencies with programs related to human resources development. Invitations have been extended also to appropriate representatives of metropolitan or county government (for example, a mayor's committee on manpower or a comprehensive planning agency). Information, advice, and operating assistance may be sought from educators, community leaders, employers, trade union representatives, and others. A typical area committee may include representatives of at least 24 different manpower or manpower-related programs. Interagency cooperation on so large a scale has never been attempted before.

The functioning of the system rests largely on good will and a desire to cooperate, although it is stimulated by Federal agencies with some financial control. No authority exists by which an uncooperative agency could, for example, be directed to meet planning deadlines. Means for coordinating Federal project approvals are still not fully developed, and the timing of Federal appropriations makes firm planning difficult. Nevertheless, the system has brought together, for the first time on an organized basis, most major local, State, and Federal agencies involved in manpower development. It is producing an inventory of manpower programs—information never before available—and is seeking to develop a plan to coordinate them.

It is producing for the first time an assessment of unmet needs, so the impact of current programing on the total problem can be evaluated better. And it is providing a basis for linking the various programs that serve persons in need.

However, it is already evident, particularly where rural areas are involved, that special funds and staff will be needed by all participating agencies and for the CAMPS structure—area, regional, and national—if the planning system is to progress beyond the information exchange point. The demands of the system should not be met at the expense of the regular operating responsibilities of the member agencies. Adequate staff support is required if CAMPS is to generate the information necessary to develop, review, and implement annual plans—which are expected to include the manpower components of the projected Neighborhood Service Centers and Model Cities Programs (discussed below)—and, in general, to serve as an umbrella for all relevant manpower programing in the community. Accordingly, the President's budget recommendations for fiscal 1969 include $11 million to support the CAMPS operation during that year and to help establish it on a long-term basis.

## MODEL CITIES

One function of CAMPS will be to coordinate manpower services in the Model Cities Program established under the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966. Under the leadership of the Department of Housing and Urban Development, and with the full participation of all concerned Federal agencies, a comprehensive locally planned attack will be made on the social, economic, and physical problems of blighted urban areas, using ongoing grant-in-aid programs, as well as funds appropriated by the Congress specifically for the Model Cities Program.

Sixty-three cities were awarded grants in November 1967 to plan Model Cities Programs. All are expected to assign high priority to the resolution of manpower problems. Selection of the cities for planning awards has hinged, in part, on the prospect they offer of substantially reducing underemployment and unemployment through work and training opportunities for neighborhood residents.

Concentrated Employment Programs have already been introduced in 13 of the cities selected for Model Cities Programs. The plan for new CEP installations calls for incorporating them as key components of Model Cities Programs wherever feasible. To the extent possible, the city areas covered by the two programs will coincide.

## NEIGHBORHOOD SERVICE CENTERS

The neighborhood center idea is not new. The Office of Economic Opportunity sponsors more than 700 multipurpose centers in 200 cities, and the Departments of Labor, of Health, Education, and Welfare, and of Housing and Urban Development[3] provide funds for single or multipurpose centers in many more. The new program aims at more unified action in identifying and furnishing speedily the manpower and other services needed by the poor and disadvantaged at a single location.

By the end of 1967, preliminary plans had been completed for pilot Neighborhood Service Centers in 11 major cities and approval of the plans for three more was imminent. The 14 cities involved are Chattanooga, Louisville, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Washington, Boston, Cincinnati, Dallas, Detroit, Minneapolis, Jacksonville, New York, Chicago, and Oakland.

To start the first 11 programs, funds totaling nearly $24 million were furnished by the four Federal agencies responsible—the Department of Housing and Urban Development (which by Executive Order chairs the interagency committee conducting the pilot program), the Department of Labor, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

In each of the 14 cities, the area to be served has an average population of 50,000, about 67 percent nonwhite. A third of the families have incomes under $3,000, and 11 percent of the population is unemployed.

The demonstration program is designed to:

—Create a unified system through which the individual or the family can obtain all of the problem-solving and opportunity-enhancing services available to the neighborhood.

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[3] For a further discussion of the relevant HUD programs, see the chapter on Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development.

—Initiate a cooperative intergovernmental effort to pool the resources and knowledge of city, State, and Federal agencies in assisting the neighborhood.

—Develop procedures for combining the efforts of the four Federal sponsoring agencies into an integrated team to work with neighborhood, city, and State agencies.

## THE SPECIAL IMPACT PROGRAM

The Special Impact Program is directed towards solving critical problems of dependency, chronic unemployment, and rising community tensions through economic, business, and community development in low-income communities and neighborhoods. The program may also provide supporting manpower training for jobless or impoverished people if needed. In 1967, this program was also the largest source of funds for the Concentrated Employment Program. However, under the 1967 amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act, the latter function is divided from the Special Impact Program and given separate financing.

Most 1967 grants under the old combined program went to Community Action agencies to buy services needed in connection with CEP projects. However, the largest single Special Impact grant in 1967 was for a complex of programs aimed at economic and manpower development in the Bedford-Stuyvesant area, a primarily Negro and Puerto Rican slum in the heart of Brooklyn, N.Y.

The Bedford-Stuyvesant project involves two corporations. The first, which is directed by a board of local residents is responsible for such undertakings as sponsorship of housing projects, job-training classes, attracting new businesses to the areas, and running a school or health center. The second, organized to give the local corporation technical aid and to attract outside investment, has a board of financiers and industrialists.

The first segment of this project to be completed involved the enrollment, during the summer of 1967, of 272 neighborhood youth. Working under journeymen, these youth refurbished the yards and exteriors of about 500 houses. More than a dozen youth have now gone into the renovating business, forming three different companies; 40 have taken construction trades apprenticeship tests; and all but about 25 of the others have been placed in jobs. Other major projects are planned but not yet underway.

Efforts to induce established businesses to come into the area met with limited success in 1967. It had been anticipated, however, that it might take as long as 4 years for the impact of the community effort to be noticeable. Meantime, the project is being closely monitored as a demonstration that may develop patterns to be followed in other areas.

## THE CONCERTED SERVICES PROGRAM

Progress in coordinating manpower services has so far occurred mostly in urban areas. A pathfinding effort is underway, however, to unify all manpower programs in depressed rural counties. This is the program known as Concerted Services in Training and Education, with pilot projects in three rural counties of Arkansas, Minnesota, and New Mexico. Here, the Departments of Agriculture, of Labor, and of Health, Education, and Welfare are cooperating in a pilot effort to apply the new training and education programs more effectively.

Under the direction of local coordinators, the Concerted Services projects have gone well beyond the original conception and have become the focal point in each area for any Federal, State, or local activity concerned with the creation of jobs and the development of people for jobs. A movement is now underway to expand the areas covered by the pilot projects.

In one Concerted Services county (Sandoval County, N. Mex.), the coordinator of Concerted Services interprets and helps the people obtain Federal services. He works to secure MDTA projects and helps to develop them; encourages residents to register with the State Employment Service; meets with the Manpower Advisory Committee; and endeavors to concentrate Federal manpower and development resources on local projects (such as a public park, a town clinic, and a program of basic education for illiterate residents).

In the other counties, the coordinators do essentially the same things, although their functions vary to fit the local situation.

## HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT

Underlying all of the above, as well as current placement efforts of the public Employment Service, is the concept of Human Resources Development (HRD),[4] introduced in 1965 and now operating in every State, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Like the Concentrated Employment Program, this program involves a focusing of staff and resources on reaching the disadvantaged, improving their employability, developing jobs for them, and placing them in these jobs.

The Human Resources Development Program has, up to now, involved only the public Employment Service. It covers the country, wherever there are State Employment offices. It is an inseparable part of all Concentrated Employment projects.

In an effort to reach the hard-core unemployed, local office staff members had been stationed in some slum areas. But experience had shown that this was not enough to bring these disadvantaged people in touch with employability development programs. It was found that trained neighborhood workers with first-hand experience in the poverty areas are the most effective bridge—they call on the people in their homes and meet them in their neighborhoods to explain the services available.

Most of the people thus contacted need help to improve their employability. This usually requires counseling and the development with the individual of a specific and realistic "employability plan" which may include a variety of needed services such as skill training, remedial education, health or welfare services, orientation in techniques of job hunting, coaching in good work habits, practice in taking employer examinations, and legal counsel. The culmination of these efforts is placement of the individual in a job—often with special assistance from the cooperating employer in developing a suitable opportunity, or perhaps even in restructuring some existing job so that the worker can qualify for it.

The HRD Program has brought about a dramatic shift in emphasis in the Employment Service—from a strongly employer-oriented screening agency to an applicant-oriented organization accepting a responsibility for developing the potential of individuals who need help. During 1967, intensive training programs, some conducted through universities, were held for key staff in every State to acquaint them with the philosophy and techniques of Human Resources Development. Several institutes were concerned with the special problems of Spanish-speaking Americans and of American Indians. The institutes were aimed partly at motivating a change in staff attitudes, since, as in any drastic change in program direction, this represented a challenge.

There have been, and still are, other problems. Improving the system's capacity for delivering up-to-date, comprehensive job market information is essential. In addition, supportive services must be obtained from already overburdened agencies.

These operational problems have not prevented local Employment Service personnel from becoming key members of the community teams concerned with planning and providing manpower services. Local office personnel are deeply involved, for example, in the basic tasks of recruitment, intake, orientation, job development, and placement of disadvantaged persons in the Concentrated Employment Program. And Human Resources Development staff and concepts are utilized in this effort.

## Enlisting Private Industry Cooperation

A precedent-making new program for developing job opportunities in the private sector of the economy was called for by the President in his message to the Congress on Manpower. In introducing this JOBS Program, the President referred to the $40-million Test Program in five large cities, which had provided a basis of experience for the new program, and stated that "Government-supported on-the-job training is the most effective gateway to meaningful employment . . ."

The new JOBS Program is based not only on experience under the Test Program but also on the results of on-the-job training projects conducted for the past several years under the Manpower Development and Training Act, and on a demonstration program sponsored by the Department of Labor in 1967 (the Ten Cities Program).

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[4] For a more detailed description of the concept of Human Resources Development, see *1967 Manpower Report*, pp. 48–49.

Several major projects initiated by private industry have furnished valuable experience also. In Detroit, for example, the New Detroit Committee, with representation from most of the city's larger businesses, was established in August 1967, after the summer riots. This committee has carried out some very successful projects for recruiting and training disadvantaged people, mostly Negroes. The New York Coalition, organized in October 1967, differs in that it includes labor and civic as well as business leaders, but the purpose is much the same.

A somewhat different joint move was made late in 1967 by the steel industry and the steelworkers' union to secure Federal help in upgrading steelworkers and to train unemployed workers to take their place.[5]

Upgrading in industry, with resulting opportunities for the unemployed, is also the objective of the imaginative program of Skill Advancement, Inc., in New York. This nonprofit organization—organized by Cornell University, the Puerto Rican Forum, Inc., and the Urban League of New York, with Government support—has worked with large and small employers and with industry groups to train low-skill employees and to upgrade them. By August 1967, more than 2,500 workers had been upgraded through the efforts of this organization, which plans to upgrade 1,500 more in fiscal 1968.

With these and other experiences on the record, the JOBS Program was decided upon. It is described in more detail later, after a preliminary discussion of the demonstration programs which have preceded it (the Test and Ten Cities programs).

## THE TEST PROGRAM

Early in October 1967, the President announced a pilot program to ally the forces of Government with those of private industry in a joint attack on hard-core unemployment. Businessmen in five cities in which Concentrated Employment projects were functioning—Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Antonio, and Washington, D.C.—were invited to come forward with plans for on-the-job training of severely disadvantaged residents. The inducement was a Federal commitment to assume up to 100 percent of the added costs and to cut red tape, so that cooperating businessmen could make all arrangements for assistance from a variety of agencies through a single office in the Department of Commerce. The specific objectives were establishing, in or near ghetto areas, plants and businesses committed to employment of the disadvantaged and obtaining similar commitments from existing plants, and action by private industry (at Government expense) to provide technical, managerial, and training assistance to small businesses offering employment opportunities for slum residents.

Agencies providing assistance are the Departments of Labor, Commerce, Defense, Health, Education, and Welfare, and Housing and Urban Development; the Office of Economic Opportunity; the Small Business Administration; and the General Services Administration. In addition to Department of Labor training subsidies and a full range of manpower and supportive social services, the kinds of assistance that may be provided include lease or sale of surplus Federal property, aid in the lease or construction of job-producing industrial facilities in poverty areas, use of excess Federal equipment for job training, lease guarantees protecting capital investments by large firms leasing facilities to small business, small business loans, and funds for transportation services and managerial assistance.

In little more than a month after the program was announced, plans had been made to build a printing plant in the Roxbury area of Boston, which would give work to 232 chronically unemployed workers. Training equipment is to be provided from Government surplus, and training costs up to about $1.1 million (an estimated two-thirds of the total) are to be met by the Department of Labor. An initial group of 60 unskilled men and women, to be selected by the State Employment Service, were to start work in January 1968, and the full complement of trainees should be at work by midsummer.

Further impetus to the program came with the Economic Development Administration's designation of a 6-mile-square area in the Chicago stockyards district as eligible for Federal grants and loans. This opened the way for development of a new industrial park, which could provide up to 7,000 jobs for hard-core unemployed within 2 to

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[5] See *1967 Manpower Report*, pp. 59–60, for a further description of this project.

3 years. And in Washington, D.C., plans were made to bring manufacturing operations into two slum areas.

Before the end of 1967, nearly 160 companies had expressed interest in participating, as a result of meetings of Government agency teams with leading businessmen in the five cities involved in this pilot program.

## THE TEN CITIES PROGRAM

The search for effective ways to involve the private sector of the economy led, in July 1967, to Department of Labor contracts with six private employers (as well as one public school system) in 10 major cities. The projects, which are to provide training and placement assistance for large groups of the most seriously disadvantaged, are being coordinated with the Concentrated Employment Program in each of the cities. The projected cost is $14 million.

The contractors are recruiting trainees, giving medical examinations and minor medical treatment if needed, and providing basic education, employability training, and work tryout and on-the-job training, coupled with prevocational and skill training—all tailored to individual needs. The program provides for continuous counseling and for vigorous efforts to place trainees in suitable work. All trainees must be placed directly in jobs or on-the-job training during the initial 15 months of the project—which will thereafter devote a final 3 months to followup.

Each project is employing its own curriculum design, including the use of programed learning and other advanced teaching techniques. The operations are being continuously observed and analyzed, in order to give the Department current information on how well the programs are going, as well as insights into their accomplishments and problems.

One of the lessons already learned from this and other programs is that successful preparation and on-the-job training of the hard-core unemployed cost much more than the average of $750 per trainee indicated by past projects of on-the-job training under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Because the task of helping the greatly disadvantaged achieve employability and needed work skills is so difficult and complex, the average cost per trainee under the Ten Cities Program will be about $2,300.

## THE JOBS PROGRAM

The JOBS Program announced by the President in January was the logical outgrowth of the Test and Ten Cities programs as well as the experience with on-the-job training under the MDTA. This new program looks to industry as the demonstrated best source of training with promise of eventual employment. And it puts at the disposal of industry the services and facilities of Government, as experience has shown is essential if hard-core unemployment is to be eradicated. The JOBS Program will be linked with existing programs, especially the Concentrated Employment Program, as a part of the present concerted attack on this problem.

Under the JOBS plan, the cooperating companies will provide training and offer employment to hard-core unemployed workers identified by the Government. The companies will bear the normal training costs. However, the persons hired under this program will be less qualified than those usually hired by the participating employers. Besides needing more training than the typical new employee, many of them will require basic education, transportation services, correction of health problems, personal counseling, and other special help. The extra costs for these services will be borne by the Government.

The goal is 100,000 jobs by June 1969 and 500,000 by June 1971, in addition to 200,000 summer jobs for youth. The JOBS Program is being started with $106 million from funds available for manpower programs in fiscal 1968, and the President has proposed increasing that amount to $244 million in fiscal 1969.

In announcing the program, the President said he was calling on American industry to establish a National Alliance of Businessmen to launch it, help achieve its goals, and advise the Government. In the 50 largest cities of the country, leading business executives will spearhead the effort in their own communities. The proposed JOBS Program represents the latest stage in the effort to mobilize the resources of the country, public and private, to insure that every American who wants and needs work can find it, and at a decent wage.

# Meeting the Needs of the Individual

One of the principal difficulties in developing manpower programs to meet the needs of the unemployed and disadvantaged is the great diversity of problems and needs, between groups such as jobless youth and older workers, city slum inhabitants and the rural poor, welfare recipients and ex-convicts. Furthermore, the differences among individuals in the same general group may be equally great.

Recognition of these differences and of the consequent need to adapt programs to the individual lies behind the Human Resources Development Program and the provision for varied services in connection with the Concentrated Employment Program. In addition, the Congress has provided new programs for special groups. The new developments in existing programs, such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the MDTA training projects, will also permit greater flexibility in meeting the problems of the individual.

Taken together, these program developments provide a variety of possible approaches to the needs of different groups and individuals. A major task ahead is to mesh them more closely into a coordinated system of effective service tailored to individual needs.

## WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) is, to date, the largest of the group of programs that afford meaningful work experience to people not yet ready for competitive employment. Opportunities for learning through work are also an essential part of the program now known as Operation Mainstream, authorized by the Congress in 1965, and of the New Careers Program, authorized in 1966. These programs were set up under the Economic Opportunity Act and are administered by the Department of Labor, under a delegation of funds and authority from the Office of Economic Opportunity. In addition, the new Work Incentive Program for welfare clients, which will become operative in 1968, will have major work-experience elements.

It is expected that, with the budget recommended by the President, enrollments in work-experience projects will approach 600,000 in fiscal 1969. The great majority of the enrollees will be youth in NYC projects of this kind.

### Neighborhood Youth Corps

A new avenue for on-the-job training of out-of-school youth through the Neighborhood Youth Corps was opened by a 1966 amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act. Under this amendment NYC work-experience training may be given in private industry, whereas previously such training could be provided only in public and private nonprofit agencies. At the same time, growing attention in NYC programs to remedial education, counseling, and "graduation" into other programs promises to increase the incentive for out-of-school youth to further their education. But for the deprived youth unwilling to return to school, the opening of opportunities in private industry offers a more direct channel into permanent private employment. During fiscal 1968 about 3,000 of the nearly 80,000 enrollees projected for the NYC out-of-school program will work with private employers. In 1969, the number will be much higher.

Wages of enrollees in the private industry projects—the minimum has been $1.40 an hour and some enrollees have been earning more than $2.00—are paid by the employers, who also supply materials, supervision, and training facilities. The employer's training costs are reimbursed.

Some progress has been made and efforts are continuing to move NYC out-of-school enrollees from work experience into skill training under the Manpower Development and Training Act. In a search for ways to provide an easier transition, concurrent NYC–MDTA pilot projects are underway in 10 cities. These projects allow the trainee to be enrolled in MDTA training 4 hours a day, with the remaining 4 hours spent at the NYC work site. There have been some successes and some problems. Since most of the projects still are continuing, overall conclusions cannot yet be reached.

As of November 30, 1967, more than 200,000 young men and women were enrolled in the Neighborhood Youth Corps—137,000 in the in-school program, which provides part-time work experience to help youth from impoverished families to stay in school; and nearly 64,000 in the full-time program for out-of-school youth. By that date, a total of 1.3 million youth had been enrolled in NYC projects since the program's start in 1965—some 400,000 in the in-school phase, about the same number in the out-of-school phase, and more than 500,000 in the summer programs, which are intended to enable impoverished youth to earn the money necessary to return to school in the fall.

There is evidence that NYC enrollees—whether in school, out of school, or in a summer program—have contributed substantially to community betterment. Their work assignments have been useful and related to the true world of work, and have aroused a sense of pride and accomplishment. The work of about 40 percent—mostly in-school enrollees—has been as clerical employees or as educational service aides. Another 28 percent—mostly out-of-school enrollees—have been building maintenance aides, sometimes with opportunity to learn a substantive skill. Some enrollees have been engaged in unusual or complex work—for example, as assistants in a television station, in display work, in drafting, and in housing rehabilitation.

Followup studies in 50 out-of-school NYC programs near the end of 1966 showed that about 35 percent of the former enrollees had full-time employment, 18 percent were in school or occupational training, 6 percent had entered military service, and 11 percent were housewives. The remaining 30 percent were ill or unemployed or could not be located.

### Operation Mainstream

One of the work-training programs, known as Operation Mainstream,[6] offers opportunities for adults similar to those for youth under the Neighborhood Youth Corps.

Unemployed adults or those with low incomes, who are unable to obtain appropriate work because of their age or for other reasons, are provided work experience designed to prepare them for competitive employment. Trainees are employed in community betterment activities in public and nonprofit agencies and receive basic education and supportive services as necessary.

The first agreement for an Operation Mainstream project entered into by the Department of Labor was with Green Thumb, Inc., a nonprofit organization for rural workers affiliated with the Farmers' Union. By the end of fiscal year 1967, the Department had signed 145 agreements, most of them renewals of earlier projects funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Approximately 8,000 job opportunities were thus provided for out-of-work adults (at a Federal cost of not quite $24 million). And 1,352 additional job opportunities were opened during the first 5 months of fiscal 1968 by the funding of 28 more projects (at a Federal cost of $4.9 million).

Men outnumber women enrollees more than 9 to 1. And 3 of every 5 enrollees are aged 45 and over.

The work done by the enrollees is highly beneficial to their communities. Those in Green Thumb projects, for example—who are older workers with an average age of 68—have planted many hundreds of thousands of trees and shrubs, built or reconditioned parks, and worked on over 10,000 miles of highway rights-of-way, clearing brush and doing soil erosion work and landscaping.

The future development and direction of new Mainstream projects awaits a full review and evaluation of 1967 experience. However, early examination of four widely separated projects showed that they were having highly beneficial effects in sparsely populated areas with high unemployment rates, low educational levels, little industrial potential, and inadequate community services. It was concluded that, without Operation Mainstream, many older workers in these areas would have been unable to obtain employment. Nevertheless, project enrollees, nationwide, are moving into regular employment. A recent study showed that, of some 8,000 former Mainstream workers, nearly 2,500 had full-time employment, over 1,000 were working part time, and 1,000 were unemployed. The work status of about 3,500 could not be determined.

### New Careers

The objective of the New Careers Program for unemployed and underemployed persons is to develop entry-level professional aide jobs, with maximum career-ladder opportunities. These jobs are to be in public and private nonprofit agencies and in such critically undermanned fields as health, education, welfare, neighborhood redevelopment, and public safety.

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[6] The program was so identified after administrative responsibility for it was delegated to the Department of Labor by the Office of Economic Opportunity in 1967.

New Careers projects are very important elements in the Concentrated Employment Programs. Late in fiscal year 1967 (when the program was delegated to the Department of Labor) and in early fiscal 1968, 22 such projects were funded in connection with Concentrated Employment Programs; these projects are expected to offer 4,600 enrollment opportunities. Another 10 independent New Careers projects with 2,000 slots were to have been funded in the first quarter of fiscal 1968. However, because of the large amount of preliminary work required before professional aides can be brought into established institutions, and because of funding delays, only 322 new slots were actually provided in such projects during the first part of the year.

If this new program is to realize its promise, the institutions providing employment and the professional workers whose positions will be affected will have to agree to some restructuring of jobs. Some tasks not requiring professional training, but which have nevertheless been performed up to now by professional personnel, will have to be allocated to separate positions which can form the basis for professional aide ladders. Developing these aide jobs will enable institutions to utilize their professional staffs more efficiently, while opening opportunities for unemployed and underemployed people to prepare for worthwhile careers.

Innovative ideas and the support of nongovernmental organizations will clearly be required for progress in these directions. Plans have been made, therefore, by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare for an institute on the potential for New Careers in education, health, the social services, law enforcement, corrections, and housing and environmental services. Most participants will come from national labor unions and professional organizations, and from individual New Careers projects, merit staffing systems, and career accreditation agencies.

### The Work Incentive Program

A comprehensive manpower program designed to break the cycle of poverty for public assistance recipients was made mandatory by 1967 legislation (title IV, Social Security Act, as Amended). This new Work Incentive Program (WIN) sets as a national goal the restoration to economic independence of all employable persons 16 years of age and over in families receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). More than 1 million families are involved.

Work Incentive Programs with a full complement of manpower services are to be set up by the Department of Labor in every State and political subdivision having a significant number of people eligible to participate. Supportive social and medical services are to be supplied by the public welfare agencies, which will refer public assistance recipients to the program.

It is planned to enroll 32,000 AFDC recipients in training under this program between April 1, 1968, when it becomes effective, and the end of fiscal 1968. Enrollment is expected to surpass 100,000 in fiscal 1969. The ultimate goal is to come as close as possible to universal enrollment of all employable welfare clients.

The program will differ in several respects from the work-experience and training program administered by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under title V of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, in which the Department of Labor cooperated under the 1966 amendments to that act. For one thing, it stresses the development of immediate and meaningful employment opportunities for public assistance recipients. The most radical difference, however, is a provision for subsidized public or private nonprofit employment for those who cannot be trained or placed in competitive employment.

It is estimated that up to 15 percent of the enrollees will move directly into jobs after initial assessment and counseling, and that an additional 5 percent will move to jobs following a 2- to 4-week orientation. The remaining individuals will be placed either in existing manpower programs for training specially adapted to their needs, or in training and work-experience activities specifically designed for the Work Incentive Program. Special work projects will be developed for individuals not immediately responsive to training or education and unable to enter the competitive job market.

It is believed that the majority can be brought to the point of employability by a combination of manpower and social services. In addition to counseling and testing, the program will provide, in sequence or in combination, job orientation, basic education, training in communications and employability skills, work experience, skill training either in classrooms or on the job, and special job development and placement services. Followup and supportive social and medical services will also be available as needed in all phases of the program. The hope is that this meshing of manpower and manpower-related services to meet carefully diagnosed individual needs will speed the job placement of public assistance recipients and help to equip them for permanent self support.

## NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS

The training programs for unemployed and underemployed workers established by the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 have been changing continuously ever since the act was passed. The latest changes reflect the new emphasis on serving the disadvantaged and coordinating manpower programs. They involve both the MDTA institutional (i.e., in-school situations) training projects and the on-the-job (OJT) training projects.

### MDTA Institutional Training

Employment orientation training, as well as basic education, can now be provided when needed to prepare the chronically unemployed for jobs or skill training. This was a 1966 addition to the kinds of training permissible under the MDTA. It helped to make feasible the reorientation of MDTA programs in 1967, under which 65 percent of all training slots were set aside for the most disadvantaged—those with combinations of problems such as lack of education, minority group status, long-term unemployment, poverty, and being a teenager or an older worker.

Employment orientation training provides a bridge to employment for many who have skills but poor work records (owing, for example, to carelessness, excessive absenteeism, job hopping or negative attitudes). Training can be given as needed in communication skills, grooming and personal hygiene, the standards of behavior and performance generally expected by employers, techniques of job-hunting, and even the use of the local transportation system (since many slum residents know only their own neighborhoods).

Altogether, 132,000 training opportunities were approved in MDTA institutional programs during fiscal 1967. Available data suggest that the number of disadvantaged enrollees approximated the target ratio of 65 percent. The total number of full-time trainees in institutional programs during fiscal 1968 is expected to be about 129,000. And the President's budget recommendations for fiscal 1969 call for an increase in this number to about 170,000.[7]

About 109,000 persons completed MDTA institutional training during fiscal year 1967. Followup during the year after training shows that 90 percent of institutional trainees obtained employment, most of it training related, and that 72 percent were employed when contacted.

Efforts to attack the skill shortage problem through part-time upgrading training for lower skilled employees was less successful, however. Such part-time training had been made possible through a 1966 amendment to the MDTA, and it was hoped that successful upgrading of workers would open opportunities for the disadvantaged in lower skilled jobs. Plans for pilot projects to test this approach called for the approval of 6,000 trainees in such projects during the first quarter of fiscal 1968, but only 520 were actually approved.

The kinds of workers for whom the part-time training is designed are already employed and difficult to identify. Of those actually reached, few have been interested in undertaking 2 or 3 hours of training after an 8-hour workday. The training incentive payment of up to $10 a week (for up to 18 hours of training) is clearly an insufficient attraction—unless the worker faces the immediate likelihood of losing his job if he does not upgrade his skills. Efforts are now being made to test the feasibility of providing the training partly on the trainee's own time and partly on that of his employer, since both will benefit. The desirability of increasing the incentive payment is also being considered.

### MDTA On-the-Job Training

Enrollments in on-the-job training under the MDTA were higher during fiscal 1967 than in any previous year. By the end of fiscal 1967, the total number of approved OJT training opportunities stood at close to 153,000, substantially above the target figure of 125,000 on-the-job training slots for the fiscal year as a whole. It is estimated that 110,000 new trainees were enrolled during the year—the highest 12-month enrollment in the history of the OJT program.

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[7] These 1968 and 1969 figures include not only trainees in MDTA projects as such but also institutional trainees in Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) projects and the Work Incentive Program.

The 1968 estimate calls for 186,000 persons to be served by on-the-job training programs, and the 1969 budget anticipates 281,000. Beginning in 1968, however, these figures no longer relate exclusively to the MDTA program; they also include the OJT components of several other manpower programs—the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Work Incentive Program, JOBS, the Concentrated Employment Program, and the special programs for veterans. It is estimated that 103,000 will be trained on the job in fiscal 1969 under the MDTA program, including the MDTA contribution to JOBS—somewhat more than a third of the projected total number of OJT trainees.

During the 1967 fiscal year, 54,500 trainees completed OJT projects. Posttraining followup shows that 90 percent of those completing such projects remain regularly employed, 95 percent of them in training-related work.

To make on-the-job training possible for the most severely disadvantaged, it was planned to devote nearly 60 percent of OJT funds in fiscal 1967 to the coupling of skill training with supplemental basic education, communications, or employability training. Contracts providing for nearly 55,000 training slots in coupled programs were executed in fiscal 1967, only two-thirds of the number projected. But in the first quarter of fiscal 1968 the target was exceeded—with contracts calling for close to 20,000 training slots in coupled projects, as compared with a target figure of 16,000.

Problems have been encountered in recruiting and retaining disadvantaged trainees during the first stage of coupled programs, which usually involves classroom training. Many of these trainees are school dropouts who have already rejected the school setting and resist returning to it. It has been found that trainee interest in coupled projects is strengthened by substituting vestibule training on the employer's premises for classes in the schools.

The growing practice of contracting for OJT programs with a community organization which, in turn, subcontracts with employers has increased the numbers of disadvantaged trainees recruited. It also has been learned, however, that a greater Federal investment will be essential in order to interest employers, attract the disadvantaged to the programs, and keep them in training and subsequent employment. This finding underlies the decision to increase the Government's payments to employers, in order to compensate them for the added indirect costs (through loss of productivity, unusual supervision requirements, and extra risks and burdens) involved in training the disadvantaged. Also, more initial counseling, health, and other supportive services are to be provided to improve the employability of prospective trainees.

In developing new OJT contracts, particular attention is being given to training for well-paid jobs offering promotional opportunities. The cooperation of large companies in creating new training opportunities will be sought, and an active effort will be made to develop opportunities with firms establishing operations in ghetto areas under the Test and JOBS programs. In addition, closer relations are being developed with the Job Corps and NYC, so that youth leaving these programs can go directly into OJT positions in private industry.

## NEW TECHNIQUES FOR REACHING AND SERVING THE DISADVANTAGED

The search for effective ways of establishing communication with the poor and disadvantaged, winning their confidence, and stimulating their determination to advance themselves has led to a number of innovations. For example, use has been made of aides drawn from the target slum neighborhoods who are able to work with their neighbors, unhampered by the communications barrier that often separates the ghetto dweller and the middle-class professional. The employment of these neighborhood workers is a key feature of the Human Resources Development Program and other new programs involving outreach activities (as already discussed).

Following are some other new approaches which have been developed for reaching and serving the disadvantaged.

### TIDE Program

An effective device for building aspirations and redirecting the energies of problem youth has emerged in the TIDE (Testing, Informing, Discussion, and Evaluating) Program. This was introduced initially in 33 Youth Opportunities Centers in the summer of 1966, primarily as a means of holding youth until Neighborhood Youth Corps, MDTA, and Job Corps assignments could be opened for them. Variations of the 1966 program were undertaken experimentally in 32 YOC's between July and October 1967.

Each TIDE class was a 4-week program in which 15 to 20 youth were brought together at a conference table, with a counselor, to discuss their problems and hopes and to learn what is required to make a start in the working world. Films, visiting speakers, field trips, and other resources were utilized to get the individual to evaluate his abilities and limitations and to think positively about his future. Of the more than 1,200 disadvantaged youth taking part in the TIDE demonstration, about 80 percent were motivated to return to school, take additional training, or find jobs.

### Opportunity Line

Still under evaluation at the end of 1967 was a program of outreach through television to seek out applicants for the many unfilled job openings listed with the public Employment Service.

The program began at a Chicago television station in June 1967. In cooperation with the Urban League, the Merit Employment Committee of the Chicago Association of Commerce and Industry, and the Illinois State Employment Service (ISES), this station introduced "Opportunity Line," a Saturday afternoon program for which the Negro personnel manager of one division of a major steel company is master of ceremonies. The program uses a job board and a battery of ISES interviewers to answer phone inquiries, and features interviews and "success stories." Respondents seeking work are directed to appropriate ISES offices.

The program has generated wide interest, stimulating hundreds of new job orders from employers, and demonstrated to the unemployed and underemployed that jobs are plentiful and of wide variety. It also has intensified public interest in the Employment Service.

Similar programs now have been introduced by television stations in many other cities. Guidelines were issued to Employment Service offices throughout the country, on the basis of the Chicago experience, suggesting methods for assuring the fullest possible service to respondents.

### Project PRIDE

In a brief span of 4 weeks during the summer of 1967, a group of five "top dudes"—natural leaders of ghetto youth—proved that they could plan, assume responsibility, organize, delegate, and achieve results. Project PRIDE, an experimental youth project sponsored by the Department of Labor in Washington, D.C., revealed a previously untapped leadership and performance potential. The group was able, within 3 days, to recruit more than 1,000 youth, assign them to operating areas and work teams, and move them into action—cleaning streets, alleyways, and vacant lots, hauling away trash, and killing thousands of rats. Countless abandoned washing machines, refrigerators, kitchen ranges, and motor vehicles were taken to the city dump.

Project PRIDE proved the sponsors' original hypothesis—that there is order in the ghetto, although often unrecognized outside and often directed toward antisocial ends. It proved further that this order, combined with street leadership, can become a powerful, positive force.

### The Opportunities Industrialization Centers

The Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) idea, conceived in Philadelphia in 1964 as a Negro self-help venture,[8] has spread rapidly throughout the country. At latest estimate 60 independent centers had been established, the largest ones located in Philadelphia, Erie, and Harrisburg, Pa.; Roanoke, Va.; Washington, D.C.; Los Angeles and Menlo Park, Calif.; Seattle, Wash.; Little Rock, Ark.; and Oklahoma City, Okla.

As of early 1968, about 25 OIC's were being funded jointly by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Office of Economic Opportunity. In addition, the Concentrated Employment Programs in six major cities had subcontracted with the local OIC's to provide certain manpower services. The other centers are financed mainly from local resources. A national OIC institute in Philadelphia provides a technical-assistance service to the federally funded OIC's.

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[8] See *1967 Manpower Report*, p. 60.

Training at the OIC's is accompanied by intensive counseling during and sometimes after the course is completed. A "feeder" program prior to skill training is a unique element designed to increase the trainees' employability.

The ability of an OIC to place its trainees in jobs is rooted in its relations with the local business community. Businessmen are consulted regarding their job requirements. An advisory committee for each occupation is appointed to represent the employers of the community. This committee assists in writing the curriculum, donates or secures equipment and supplies, recommends program revisions to meet changing job requirements, and helps to place the graduates in jobs.

The original center in Philadelphia has placed 3,600 trainees in jobs with 888 different companies during its first 3½ years of operation. All but 2 percent of these placements were in jobs using the skill in which the individual was trained. This center can accommodate 1,400 trainees at a time and has a waiting list of 6,000.

## MEETING THE PROBLEMS OF SPECIAL GROUPS

### Older Workers

Within the total population of the disadvantaged are several special groups—some localized, some scattered throughout the country—with unique problems requiring specially tailored programs. One group whose needs have received particular emphasis in 1967 and 1968 is older workers.

The Age Discrimination Act of 1967, recommended by the President in his 1967 Older American message, becomes effective in mid-June 1968. The measure applies to employers of 50 or more persons (25 or more after June 30) and to employment agencies and labor organizations. Its prohibition against arbitrary age discrimination protects workers between the ages of 40 and 65—about one-half of the entire labor force.

The legislation gives the Secretary of Labor enforcement power. It also directs him to make further studies—among them an examination of institutional arrangements, including compulsory retirement, which work to the disadvantage of older workers—and directs him to foster older worker employment through the Employment Service and through cooperation with public and private agencies.

The Employment Service program for older workers who have difficulty in getting or keeping jobs principally because of age (or of characteristics ordinarily associated with age) includes counseling, job development, referral to training or to other social services, and job placement. All these services are provided on an intensified and individualized basis.

A moderate expansion, initiated in fiscal 1966, allocated 100 staff positions exclusively for such services to older workers, and in fiscal 1967, an additional 291 positions were allocated. Most of these positions were used to staff older worker service units in 27 of the Nation's major cities.

Jobseekers aged 45 and over accounted for 15 percent of all applications filed with the Employment Service in the first 10 months of 1967, and for 21 percent of all placements made (more than 1 million). During the same period, 108,000 older workers received intensive counseling to assist them in choosing an occupation or dealing with other job problems.

The new older worker service units represent the most concerted effort since the late 1950's to expand employment services for this group. There are arguments for and against the concept of specialized, older worker units. At the end of 1967, the Department of Labor was in process of consulting Employment Service officials, older workers, and business and community leaders, with the aim of evaluating these units and other services to older workers.

Since most special service units had been in operation for only a few months, it was too early to summarize their activities. However, in the five original units (in Detroit, Minneapolis-St. Paul, Kansas City, Rochester, and Houston), 6,200 older workers filed job applications from January through October 1967. Of these, 4,350, or 70 percent, received job counseling, a ratio seven times the overall Employment Service average for this age group.

The Human Resources Development Program has spurred efforts to aid older workers. Most such workers registering with the Employment Service fit two of the criteria for HRD services; besides being 45 years of age or older, they have been (or may reasonably be expected to be) unemployed for 15 weeks or longer. In general, where older worker service units exist, these have been incorporated into the HRD effort.

The Employment Service has also conducted two experimental projects in neighborhood employment centers, in order to make its services as accessible as possible to older workers. Both centers were staffed almost entirely by volunteers, and have demonstrated the effectiveness of these volunteers in job development and other assistance to older workers. Current plans call for extending the use of volunteers to other localities.

Among MDTA trainees, the representation of older workers has increased moderately. The proportion reached 12 percent in fiscal 1967, an improvement over the earlier ratio, which was persistently about 10 percent. In on-the-job training projects, the proportion of trainees who were older workers was 11 percent in 1967.

Seven experimental and demonstration projects concerned with older workers were operating in 1967, out of a total of 16 such projects initiated since the passage of the MDTA in 1962. The experience gained through these projects should furnish useful guidelines for organizations concerned with the problems of older workers.

### Mexican Americans

Concentrated in the southwestern part of the United States are nearly 5 million Mexican Americans. This minority group is afflicted by pervasive poverty, high unemployment, lack of education, and other economic and social deprivation (as discussed in the section on Equality of Opportunity in an earlier chapter).

The MDTA program has not been very successful in reaching the most disadvantaged members of this population group, particularly in rural areas. Enrollment of these people in training projects has been hampered by their frequent inability to meet the entrance requirements, by the fact that these projects are largely urban, and by mistrust of the Employment Service, through which the training opportunities are available. Some Mexican Americans apparently believe that Employment Service offices cannot offer them opportunities or will categorize them as farmworkers and shunt them into the migrant labor system from which they are trying to escape. Lack of adequate outreach facilities limits the Employment Service's ability to change these attitudes. However, efforts are being made to strengthen services to the Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest by such methods as developing Spanish versions of testing materials, increasing the numbers of bilingual interviewers and counselors in local offices, and emphasizing recruitment of Mexican American job applicants.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps has had the greatest success in serving this minority group. There has been substantial Mexican American participation in both in-school and out-of-school projects. But the lack of vocational and personal guidance, especially for the out-of-school youth, and the lack of followup after NYC enrollment is ended are serious deficiencies. These Mexican American out-of-school youth often represent the most disadvantaged members of a poverty-stricken population, and they are badly in need of continued, understanding guidance. Enrollment in NYC projects may give these youth a glimpse of their potential. But the general lack of opportunity to move on to skill training and jobs after completing an NYC project has often left them little, if any, better off than on entering the project.

To meet the need for a communications bridge between Mexican Americans and the Employment Service and to give them greater awareness of available manpower programs, an organization known as SER (Service, Employment, Redevelopment) was organized by some major Mexican American organizations. SER was funded late in 1966 by the Department of Labor and the Office of Economic Opportunity to establish information centers and prepare a "skill bank" of Spanish-speaking people. A total of $5 million in MDTA funds has been earmarked to support the local programs SER is developing. In three cities, the organization has furnished a component of the Concentrated Employment Programs.

Thus, a small beginning has been made. But there is great need for provision of better educational and health services, for improved transportation, and for industrial development in the areas where Mexican Americans are concentrated.[9] Broad Government action in these directions will be needed to bring the Mexican Americans of the Southwest into full participation in the region's economic and cultural life.

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[9] For a discussion of the economic development program for the Four Corners region of the Southwest, see the chapter on Geographic Factors in Employment and Manpower Development.

### Prison Inmates

Through appropriate training and other services, many prison inmates can be prepared for productive lives after release. Evidence to this effect has accumulated from E&D projects in the past several years.

The projects give promise that more widespread counseling, basic literacy training, skill training, job development help, and placement and supportive services can effectively reduce the present high recidivism rates. At least one-third of the more than 100,000 persons released from State and Federal prisons each year, and one-third of the large numbers released from local and county jails and workhouses, now return to prison as repeating offenders.

Most offenders, when they enter correctional institutions, have little training or job skill. Characteristically, they have had unstable employment experience or perhaps none of real significance; as a group they are undereducated and have poor attitudes toward the world of work; and many come from broken homes. Such backgrounds, coupled with a prison record, present grave handicaps to individuals looking for jobs after release from prison. Inability to find work is apparently a factor in the high rate of recidivism.

In view of the apparent need for training and related services for prison inmates, Congress has authorized a new and expanded pilot program to run through fiscal 1969. The purpose of the new program is to acquire additional knowledge and experience on which to base State and Federal programs for all inmates who need job preparation. In the absence of special financing, reserve MDTA funds will be used to finance a limited number of projects. These are being developed by State Employment Services and education agencies, in consultation with administrators of correctional programs.

To inform administrators and other concerned people about the new program, the Rehabilitation Research Foundation has conducted four regional conferences on the findings of experimental and demonstration experience in prison inmate training. These conferences have included Employment Service representatives, vocational rehabilitation officers, vocational educators, corrections administrators, and pardon and parole officials.

New projects are being planned under the Manpower Development and Training Act to take advantage of the experience and insights gained from the demonstration projects. Innovation and experimentation will continue in these new projects.

Experimentation with respect to the effect of bonding assistance in aiding the employment of ex-prisoners also is continuing under a 1965 MDTA amendment. Many occupations have been closed to ex-prisoners because of bonding requirements and the refusal of bonding companies to underwrite the trustworthiness of persons with police records. Under the experimental program, the Federal Government has contracted with a commercial underwriter to provide bonds for ex-prisoners, and for others who have participated in a federally assisted manpower program and are denied employment because of arrest records or for other reasons unrelated to ability.

## SERVICES TO RETURNING VETERANS

About 850,000 servicemen will be returning to civilian life during fiscal 1968—and an equal number in 1969—about 300,000 more than in the average pre-Vietnam year. Some have meaningful work awaiting them, but large numbers will face serious employment problems unless all the resources of Federal, State, and local governments are marshaled to help them.

The President, in August 1967, directed the Secretary of Labor, in cooperation with the Secretary of Defense, to see that "each and every returning veteran be personally contacted by telephone or by personal visit by a representative from one of the Nation's 2,200 public Employment Service offices in order to ascertain his or her particular job needs."

Accordingly, as each serviceman is discharged, notice is sent to the Employment Service office nearest his home, and this office makes every effort to inform the veteran in person of the services it can offer—extensive job counseling and guidance, training opportunities, referral to employment, and information about the new GI bill of rights. In addition, if the veteran faces any period of unemployment, the office will see that he is informed about the veterans' unemployment compensation program.

To provide additional services, the President recently ordered the establishment of special U.S. Veterans Assistance Centers in 10 major cities throughout the country and proposed similar centers for 10 other cities. These centers will enable veterans to get information in one centrally located office on the full range of educational, employment, housing, health, and other services to which they are entitled.

The Employment Service and Veterans Center programs are geared to helping the veteran after discharge. Through its new Project Transition, the Department of Defense is also providing training and educational opportunities for an increasing number of servicemen during their final 6 months of service, to prepare them for civilian employment. Highest priority is given to those expected to face the most severe problems—the combat disabled, those with no civilian work experience, and those, including many combat veterans, who did not acquire any skills related to civilian jobs while in the service.

Project Transition has four basic elements—a counseling program to determine career desires and educational and training choices, an educational program to bring men up to the eighth grade or high school equivalency level, a training program to give them marketable skills, and a placement system to furnish employment opportunities to the newly trained servicemen (through the facilities of the Employment Service and private industry). Training is provided through existing civilian-related military courses, through MDTA courses or those sponsored by Federal agencies such as the Post Office Department, and through courses given by companies to meet their own employment requirements. Thus, in providing predischarge training to servicemen, Project Transition will help meet the personnel needs of Federal, State, and local government agencies as well as of private industry.

Special benefit from Project Transition is expected for marginally qualified servicemen inducted under the Armed Forces' recently developed Project 100,000. During the first year of Project 100,000, the Armed Forces accepted 49,000 men who previously would have been rejected, and 96 percent of them successfully completed basic training. About one-third of this group has been trained in combat skills. It is expected that in 1968 fully 100,000 young men will be accepted for service under this program.

The recent GI benefit legislation should make advanced training and education possible for great numbers of young veterans who previously could not afford this. More than 250,000 veterans currently attending college are receiving payments under the program, which go as high as $175 a month for a veteran with two dependents. The new law also authorizes on-the-job training allowances to veterans enrolled in Federal or State-approved apprenticeship programs. Altogether, it is estimated that this legislation will provide increased educational, job training, and other benefits for about 5 million veterans of the Vietnam period. Currently, more than 400,000 are receiving benefits.

To supplement the new GI bill, the President, on January 30, 1968, proposed new legislation that would enable the veteran to help others while helping himself. The President has allocated $50 million in his 1969 budget as incentive payments to veterans who agree to take training for special public service jobs. The proposed legislation—the Veterans in the Public Service Act of 1968—seeks to channel the talents of veterans into the Nation's ghetto schools, understaffed city police and fire departments and hospitals, and many programs designed to help the disadvantaged.

Veterans studying to be teachers in deprived areas will draw additional benefits of $50 a month for every month they agree to teach—up to 3 years of such extra benefits. The Department of Defense is cooperating with major police departments throughout the country by allowing early discharge (up to 90 days) for men who wish to enter civilian police work. The President also has directed the Veterans' Administration to increase the numbers trained in health occupations in its hospitals by 80,000 a year. In addition, the Employment Service is making a strong effort to interest veterans with paramedical experience in planning civilian careers in health occupations.

Veterans are not, as a group, disadvantaged and certainly are not among the hard-core unemployed. However, 24 percent of the returning veterans have not completed high school. Many are Negroes, Mexican Americans, American Indians, and Puerto Ricans—minority groups that often face special obstacles in securing work. Whatever their ethnic origin, and whether their roots are in poverty or affluence, veterans represent one of the country's greatest resources of manpower. The interlocking programs now underway are designed to insure them opportunity to develop their abilities fully and to find satisfying jobs.

## 1968 and the Future

The new developments reported in this chapter—some begun cautiously in 1966 and tried out in 1967, some begun in 1967 or still in the planning stage at the beginning of 1968—should become fully operative this year. Private industry should now become deeply involved in development and employment of the country's most disadvantaged human resources, and its potential for acting as a full partner in the Government's manpower programs should be demonstrated. The expansion of the Concentrated Employment Program is expected to decrease unemployment in city slums and depressed rural areas. The Human Resources Development Program in all its varied manifestations will continue to be the heart of Employment Service programs. And the new JOBS and Work Incentive programs and other strengthened programs of training and work experience will alter the lives of many thousands of people.

Certain aspects of these programs will certainly be changed as experience is gained, and new approaches will be tried. But in one shape or another, these programs must and will succeed. There is little choice, if continued hopeless unemployment, poverty, and mounting unrest are to be prevented.

These programs have to work as an integrated whole. Interagency rivalries, suspicion among various action groups, and the urge to act alone without mutual planning must be submerged in a concerted marshaling of efforts.

A rigorous and systematic evaluation is needed and will be carried out, to determine what is working and what is not, and what can be done to improve each project. The programs or phases of programs that cannot be made to serve their intended purpose must be discarded or changed; those that offer the most profit over investment in terms of human advance and elimination of chronic joblessness must be emphasized and expanded.

The estimate in the *Budget of the United States* for fiscal 1969 that 1,292,000 persons will be served by training, work-experience, and related programs represents an increase of 322,000 over the estimate for fiscal 1968. If this goal is reached, and a great number of disadvantaged people thus enabled to enter meaningful jobs, this will represent a major breakthrough in solving the problems of unemployment and poverty in the United States.

# STATISTICAL APPENDIX

The U.S. Department of Labor is the source of all data in this report unless otherwise specified. (Prior to July 1959 the data shown in sections A and B were published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.) Information on concepts, methodology, etc., will be found in the appropriate publications of the Department, particularly *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force* of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and publications of the Bureau of Employment Security. For those series based on samples, attention is invited to the estimates of sampling variability and sample coverage published in *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

Beginning with data for 1967, the lower age limit for official statistics on persons in the labor force was raised from 14 to 16 years. At the same time, several definitions were sharpened to clear up ambiguities. The principal definitional changes were:

(1) Counting as unemployed only persons who were currently available for work and who had engaged in some specific jobseeking activity within the past 4 weeks (an exception to the latter condition is made for persons waiting to start a new job in 30 days or waiting to be recalled from layoff). In the past the current availability test was not applied and the time period for jobseeking was ambiguous.

(2) Counting as employed persons who were absent from their jobs in the survey week (because of strikes, bad weather, etc.) and who were looking for other jobs. These persons had previously been classified as unemployed.

(3) Sharpening the questions on hours of work, duration of unemployment, and self-employment in order to increase their reliability.

These changes did not affect the unemployment rate by more than one-fifth of a percentage point in either direction, although the distribution of unemployment by sex was affected. The number of employed was reduced about 1 million because of the exclusion of 14- and 15-year-olds. For persons 16 years and over, the only employment series appreciably affected were those relating to hours of work and class of worker. A detailed discussion of the changes and their effect on the various series is contained in the February 1967 issue of *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

The tables in section A have been revised to exclude 14- and 15-year-olds where possible; otherwise, annual averages for 1966 are shown on both the old and new bases. Overlap averages for 1966, where pertinent, are also shown for the special labor force series in section B. Most of the projections in section E have been revised to relate to persons 16 years and over.

Most time series are shown from the first year for which continuous or relatively continuous data are available, beginning with 1947.

Alaska and Hawaii are included unless otherwise noted.

Individual items in the tables may not add to totals because of rounding.

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**NOTE:** The lower age limit for the inclusion of persons in labor force statistics was raised from 14 years to 16 years of age beginning with the publication of data for 1967. (For a discussion of this and other definitional changes adopted at the same time, see the preceding foreword.) Historical data in this section have been revised, where possible, to relate to persons 16 years and older; where this has not been possible, overlap averages are shown for 1966.

## Table A-1. Employment Status of the Noninstitutional Population 16 Years and Over, by Sex: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Numbers in thousands]

| Sex and year | Total noninstitutional population | Total labor force, including Armed Forces | | Civilian labor force | | | | | | Not in labor force |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Employed | | | Unemployed | | |
| | | Number | Percent of noninstitutional population | Total | Total | Agriculture | Nonagricultural industries | Number | Percent of labor force | |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 103,418 | 60,941 | 58.9 | 59,350 | 57,039 | 7,891 | 49,148 | 2,311 | 3.9 | 42,477 |
| 1948 | 104,527 | 62,080 | 59.4 | 60,621 | 58,344 | 7,629 | 50,711 | 2,276 | 3.8 | 42,447 |
| 1949 | 105,611 | 62,903 | 59.6 | 61,286 | 57,649 | 7,656 | 49,990 | 3,637 | 5.9 | 42,708 |
| 1950 | 106,645 | 63,858 | 59.9 | 62,208 | 58,920 | 7,160 | 51,752 | 3,288 | 5.3 | 42,787 |
| 1951 | 107,721 | 65,117 | 60.4 | 62,017 | 59,962 | 6,726 | 53,230 | 2,055 | 3.3 | 42,604 |
| 1952 | 108,823 | 65,730 | 60.4 | 62,138 | 60,254 | 6,501 | 53,748 | 1,883 | 3.0 | 43,093 |
| 1953 [1] | 110,601 | 66,560 | 60.2 | 63,015 | 61,181 | 6,261 | 54,915 | 1,834 | 2.9 | 44,041 |
| 1954 | 111,671 | 66,993 | 60.0 | 63,643 | 60,110 | 6,206 | 53,898 | 3,532 | 5.5 | 44,678 |
| 1955 | 112,732 | 68,072 | 60.4 | 65,023 | 62,171 | 6,449 | 55,718 | 2,852 | 4.4 | 44,660 |
| 1956 | 113,811 | 69,409 | 61.0 | 66,552 | 63,802 | 6,283 | 57,506 | 2,750 | 4.1 | 44,402 |
| 1957 | 115,065 | 69,729 | 60.6 | 66,929 | 64,071 | 5,947 | 58,123 | 2,859 | 4.3 | 45,336 |
| 1958 | 116,363 | 70,275 | 60.4 | 67,639 | 63,036 | 5,586 | 57,450 | 4,602 | 6.8 | 46,088 |
| 1959 | 117,881 | 70,921 | 60.2 | 68,369 | 64,630 | 5,565 | 59,065 | 3,740 | 5.5 | 46,960 |
| 1960 [1] | 119,759 | 72,142 | 60.2 | 69,628 | 65,778 | 5,458 | 60,318 | 3,852 | 5.5 | 47,617 |
| 1961 | 121,343 | 73,031 | 60.2 | 70,459 | 65,746 | 5,200 | 60,546 | 4,714 | 6.7 | 48,312 |
| 1962 [1] | 122,981 | 73,442 | 59.7 | 70,614 | 66,702 | 4,944 | 61,759 | 3,911 | 5.5 | 49,539 |
| 1963 | 125,154 | 74,571 | 59.6 | 71,833 | 67,762 | 4,687 | 63,076 | 4,070 | 5.7 | 50,583 |
| 1964 | 127,224 | 75,830 | 59.6 | 73,091 | 69,305 | 4,523 | 64,782 | 3,786 | 5.2 | 51,394 |
| 1965 | 129,236 | 77,178 | 59.7 | 74,455 | 71,088 | 4,361 | 66,726 | 3,366 | 4.5 | 52,058 |
| 1966 | 131,180 | 78,893 | 60.1 | 75,770 | 72,895 | 3,979 | 68,915 | 2,875 | 3.8 | 52,288 |
| 1967 | 133,319 | 80,793 | 60.6 | 77,347 | 74,372 | 3,844 | 70,527 | 2,975 | 3.8 | 52,527 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 50,968 | 44,258 | 86.8 | 42,686 | 40,994 | 6,643 | 34,351 | 1,692 | 4.0 | 6,710 |
| 1948 | 51,439 | 44,729 | 87.0 | 43,286 | 41,726 | 6,358 | 35,366 | 1,559 | 3.6 | 6,710 |
| 1949 | 51,922 | 45,097 | 86.9 | 43,498 | 40,926 | 6,342 | 34,581 | 2,572 | 5.9 | 6,825 |
| 1950 | 52,352 | 45,446 | 86.8 | 43,819 | 41,580 | 6,001 | 35,573 | 2,239 | 5.1 | 6,906 |
| 1951 | 52,788 | 46,063 | 87.3 | 43,001 | 41,780 | 5,533 | 36,243 | 1,221 | 2.8 | 6,725 |
| 1952 | 53,248 | 46,416 | 87.2 | 42,869 | 41,684 | 5,389 | 36,292 | 1,185 | 2.8 | 6,832 |
| 1953 [1] | 54,248 | 47,131 | 86.9 | 43,633 | 42,431 | 5,253 | 37,175 | 1,202 | 2.8 | 7,117 |
| 1954 | 54,706 | 47,275 | 86.4 | 43,965 | 41,620 | 5,200 | 36,414 | 2,344 | 5.3 | 7,431 |
| 1955 | 55,122 | 47,488 | 86.2 | 44,475 | 42,621 | 5,265 | 37,354 | 1,854 | 4.2 | 7,634 |
| 1956 | 55,547 | 47,914 | 86.3 | 45,091 | 43,380 | 5,039 | 38,334 | 1,711 | 3.8 | 7,633 |
| 1957 | 56,082 | 47,964 | 85.5 | 45,197 | 43,357 | 4,824 | 38,532 | 1,841 | 4.1 | 8,118 |
| 1958 | 56,640 | 48,126 | 85.0 | 45,521 | 42,423 | 4,596 | 37,827 | 3,098 | 6.8 | 8,514 |
| 1959 | 57,312 | 48,405 | 84.5 | 45,886 | 43,466 | 4,532 | 38,934 | 2,420 | 5.3 | 8,907 |
| 1960 [1] | 58,144 | 48,870 | 84.0 | 46,388 | 43,904 | 4,472 | 39,431 | 2,486 | 5.4 | 9,274 |
| 1961 | 58,826 | 49,193 | 83.6 | 46,653 | 43,656 | 4,298 | 39,359 | 2,997 | 6.4 | 9,633 |
| 1962 [1] | 59,626 | 49,395 | 82.8 | 46,600 | 44,177 | 4,069 | 40,108 | 2,423 | 5.2 | 10,231 |
| 1963 | 60,627 | 49,835 | 82.2 | 47,129 | 44,657 | 3,809 | 40,849 | 2,472 | 5.2 | 10,792 |
| 1964 | 61,556 | 50,387 | 81.9 | 47,679 | 45,474 | 3,691 | 41,782 | 2,205 | 4.6 | 11,169 |
| 1965 | 62,473 | 50,946 | 81.5 | 48,255 | 46,340 | 3,547 | 42,792 | 1.914 | 4.0 | 11,527 |
| 1966 | 63,351 | 51,560 | 81.4 | 48,471 | 46,919 | 3,243 | 43,675 | 1,551 | 3.2 | 11,792 |
| 1967 | 64,316 | 52,398 | 81.5 | 48,987 | 47,479 | 3,164 | 44,315 | 1,508 | 3.1 | 11,919 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 52,450 | 16,683 | 31.8 | 16,664 | 16,045 | 1,248 | 14,797 | 619 | 3.7 | 35,767 |
| 1948 | 53,088 | 17,351 | 32.7 | 17,335 | 16,618 | 1,271 | 15,345 | 717 | 4.1 | 35,737 |
| 1949 | 53,689 | 17,806 | 33.2 | 17,788 | 16,723 | 1,314 | 15,409 | 1,065 | 6.0 | 35,883 |
| 1950 | 54,293 | 18,412 | 33.9 | 18,389 | 17,340 | 1,159 | 16,179 | 1,049 | 5.7 | 35,881 |
| 1951 | 54,933 | 19,054 | 34.7 | 19,016 | 18,182 | 1,193 | 16,987 | 834 | 4.4 | 35,879 |
| 1952 | 55,575 | 19,314 | 34.8 | 19,269 | 18,570 | 1,112 | 17,456 | 698 | 3.6 | 36,261 |
| 1953 [1] | 56,353 | 19,429 | 34.5 | 19,382 | 18,750 | 1,008 | 17,740 | 632 | 3.3 | 36,924 |
| 1954 | 56,965 | 19,718 | 34.6 | 19,678 | 18,490 | 1,006 | 17,484 | 1,188 | 6.0 | 37,247 |
| 1955 | 57,610 | 20,584 | 35.7 | 20,548 | 19,550 | 1,184 | 18,364 | 998 | 4.9 | 37,026 |
| 1956 | 58,264 | 21,495 | 36.9 | 21,461 | 20,422 | 1,244 | 19,172 | 1,039 | 4.8 | 36,769 |
| 1957 | 58,983 | 21,765 | 36.9 | 21,732 | 20,714 | 1,123 | 19,591 | 1,018 | 4.7 | 37,218 |
| 1958 | 59,723 | 22,149 | 37.1 | 22,118 | 20,613 | 990 | 19,623 | 1,504 | 6.8 | 37,574 |
| 1959 | 60,569 | 22,516 | 37.2 | 22,483 | 21,164 | 1,033 | 20,131 | 1,320 | 5.9 | 38,053 |
| 1960 [1] | 61,615 | 23,272 | 37.8 | 23,240 | 21,874 | 986 | 20,887 | 1,366 | 5.9 | 38,343 |
| 1961 | 62,517 | 23,838 | 38.1 | 23,806 | 22,090 | 902 | 21,187 | 1,717 | 7.2 | 38,679 |
| 1962 [1] | 63,355 | 24,047 | 38.0 | 24,014 | 22,525 | 875 | 21,651 | 1,488 | 6.2 | 39,308 |
| 1963 | 64,527 | 24,736 | 38.3 | 24,704 | 23,105 | 878 | 22,227 | 1,598 | 6.5 | 39,791 |
| 1964 | 65,668 | 25,443 | 38.7 | 25,412 | 23,831 | 832 | 23,000 | 1,581 | 6.2 | 40,225 |
| 1965 | 66,763 | 26,232 | 39.3 | 26,200 | 24,748 | 814 | 23,934 | 1,452 | 5.5 | 40,531 |
| 1966 | 67,829 | 27,333 | 40.3 | 27,299 | 25,976 | 736 | 25,240 | 1,324 | 4.8 | 40,496 |
| 1967 | 69,003 | 28,395 | 41.2 | 28,360 | 26,893 | 680 | 26,212 | 1,468 | 5.2 | 40,608 |

---

[1] Not strictly comparable with prior years. The introduction of data from the decennial censuses into the estimation procedure in 1953 and 1962, and the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii in 1960, have resulted in three periods of noncomparability: (*a*) Beginning 1953, as a result of the 1950 census, population levels were raised by about 600,000; labor force, total employment, and agricultural employment by about 350,000, primarily affecting the figures for totals and males; other categories were relatively unaffected; (*b*) beginning 1960, the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii resulted in an increase of about 500,000 in the population and about 300,000 in the labor force, four-fifths of this in nonagricultural employment; other labor force categories were not appreciably affected; (*c*) beginning 1962, the introduction of figures from the 1960 census reduced the population by about 50,000, labor force and employment by about 200,000; unemployment totals were virtually unchanged.

## Table A-2. Total Labor Force (Including Armed Forces) and Labor Force Participation Rates[1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Sex and year | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number in total labor force (thousands) | | | | | | | | | |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 44,258 | 1,169 | 1,884 | 5,094 | 10,598 | 9,603 | 7,882 | 5,650 | 2,376 | 586 |
| 1948 | 44,729 | 1,168 | 1,834 | 5,117 | 10,758 | 9,723 | 7,975 | 5,770 | 2,385 | 572 |
| 1949 | 45,097 | 1,108 | 1,791 | 5,198 | 10,886 | 9,860 | 8,043 | 5,755 | 2,454 | 577 |
| 1950 | 45,446 | 1,079 | 1,742 | 5,224 | 11,044 | 9,952 | 8,152 | 5,800 | 2,453 | 623 |
| 1951 | 46,063 | 1,148 | 1,717 | 5,267 | 11,269 | 10,056 | 8,254 | 5,882 | 2,469 | 611 |
| 1952 | 46,416 | 1,154 | 1,658 | 5,223 | 11,446 | 10,189 | 8,374 | 5,957 | 2,415 | 585 |
| 1953[2] | 47,131 | 1,125 | 1,652 | 5,084 | 11,469 | 10,669 | 8,612 | 5,979 | 2,544 | 561 |
| 1954 | 47,275 | 1,073 | 1,653 | 4,959 | 11,467 | 10,748 | 8,743 | 6,110 | 2,525 | 572 |
| 1955 | 47,488 | 1,130 | 1,682 | 4,851 | 11,464 | 10,833 | 8,877 | 6,125 | 2,526 | 566 |
| 1956 | 47,914 | 1,216 | 1,731 | 4,814 | 11,359 | 10,926 | 9,044 | 6,224 | 2,604 | 665 |
| 1957 | 47,964 | 1,207 | 1,778 | 4,781 | 11,247 | 11,046 | 9,201 | 6,227 | 2,477 | 665 |
| 1958 | 48,126 | 1,197 | 1,754 | 4,849 | 11,108 | 11,161 | 9,369 | 6,308 | 2,379 | 676 |
| 1959 | 48,405 | 1,256 | 1,786 | 4,987 | 10,981 | 11,235 | 9,488 | 6,350 | 2,321 | 676 |
| 1960[2] | 48,870 | 1,335 | 1,849 | 5,089 | 10,930 | 11,340 | 9,634 | 6,405 | 2,287 | 637 |
| 1961 | 49,193 | 1,271 | 1,958 | 5,187 | 10,880 | 11,403 | 9,741 | 6,535 | 2,220 | 725 |
| 1962[2] | 49,395 | 1,225 | 2,027 | 5,272 | 10,720 | 11,542 | 9,803 | 6,565 | 2,241 | 780 |
| 1963 | 49,835 | 1,372 | 2,034 | 5,471 | 10,635 | 11,589 | 9,923 | 6,679 | 2,135 | 738 |
| 1964 | 50,387 | 1,549 | 2,026 | 5,704 | 10,636 | 11,559 | 10,043 | 6,745 | 2,123 | 731 |
| 1965 | 50,946 | 1,577 | 2,254 | 5,926 | 10,653 | 11,504 | 10,131 | 6,768 | 2,131 | 759 |
| 1966 | 51,560 | 1,656 | 2,467 | 6,139 | 10,761 | 11,395 | 10,202 | 6,852 | 2,089 | 790 |
| 1967 | 52,398 | 1,695 | 2,519 | 6,546 | 11,001 | 11,282 | 10,295 | 6,944 | 2,118 | 838 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 16,683 | 643 | 1,192 | 2,725 | 3,750 | 3,676 | 2,730 | 1,522 | 445 | 232 |
| 1948 | 17,351 | 671 | 1,164 | 2,721 | 3,940 | 3,804 | 2,973 | 1,565 | 514 | 248 |
| 1949 | 17,806 | 648 | 1,165 | 2,662 | 4,006 | 3,993 | 3,100 | 1,678 | 556 | 242 |
| 1950 | 18,412 | 611 | 1,103 | 2,681 | 4,101 | 4,166 | 3,328 | 1,839 | 584 | 268 |
| 1951 | 19,054 | 663 | 1,100 | 2,670 | 4,305 | 4,307 | 3,535 | 1,923 | 551 | 255 |
| 1952 | 19,314 | 706 | 1,052 | 2,519 | 4,335 | 4,444 | 3,637 | 2,032 | 590 | 244 |
| 1953[2] | 19,429 | 656 | 1,057 | 2,447 | 4,175 | 4,668 | 3,682 | 2,048 | 693 | 239 |
| 1954 | 19,718 | 620 | 1,068 | 2,441 | 4,224 | 4,715 | 3,824 | 2,164 | 666 | 253 |
| 1955 | 20,584 | 641 | 1,088 | 2,458 | 4,261 | 4,808 | 4,155 | 2,391 | 780 | 258 |
| 1956 | 21,495 | 736 | 1,132 | 2,467 | 4,285 | 5,036 | 4,407 | 2,610 | 821 | 313 |
| 1957 | 21,765 | 716 | 1,150 | 2,453 | 4,263 | 5,121 | 4,618 | 2,631 | 813 | 332 |
| 1958 | 22,149 | 685 | 1,153 | 2,510 | 4,201 | 5,190 | 4,862 | 2,727 | 822 | 333 |
| 1959 | 22,516 | 765 | 1,137 | 2,484 | 4,096 | 5,232 | 5,083 | 2,883 | 836 | 349 |
| 1960[2] | 23,272 | 805 | 1,257 | 2,590 | 4,140 | 5,308 | 5,280 | 2,986 | 907 | 347 |
| 1961 | 23,838 | 774 | 1,374 | 2,708 | 4,151 | 5,394 | 5,405 | 3,105 | 926 | 419 |
| 1962[2] | 24,047 | 741 | 1,411 | 2,814 | 4,111 | 5,479 | 5,383 | 3,198 | 911 | 460 |
| 1963 | 24,736 | 850 | 1,388 | 2,970 | 4,181 | 5,604 | 5,505 | 3,332 | 905 | 405 |
| 1964 | 25,443 | 950 | 1,371 | 3,220 | 4,187 | 5,618 | 5,682 | 3,447 | 966 | 411 |
| 1965 | 26,232 | 954 | 1,565 | 3,375 | 4,336 | 5,724 | 5,714 | 3,587 | 976 | 421 |
| 1966 | 27,333 | 1,054 | 1,826 | 3,601 | 4,516 | 5,761 | 5,885 | 3,727 | 963 | 481 |
| 1967 | 28,395 | 1,076 | 1,821 | 3,981 | 4,853 | 5,847 | 5,986 | 3,855 | 978 | 539 |
| | Labor force participation rate | | | | | | | | | |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 86.8 | 52.2 | 80.5 | 84.9 | 95.8 | 98.0 | 95.5 | 89.6 | 47.8 | 27.7 |
| 1948 | 87.0 | 53.4 | 79.9 | 85.7 | 96.1 | 98.0 | 95.8 | 89.5 | 46.8 | 27.5 |
| 1949 | 86.9 | 52.3 | 79.5 | 87.8 | 95.9 | 98.0 | 95.6 | 87.5 | 46.9 | 27.4 |
| 1950 | 86.8 | 52.0 | 79.0 | 89.1 | 96.2 | 97.6 | 95.8 | 86.9 | 45.8 | 28.7 |
| 1951 | 87.3 | 54.5 | 80.3 | 91.1 | 97.1 | 97.6 | 96.0 | 87.2 | 44.9 | 27.7 |
| 1952 | 87.2 | 53.1 | 79.1 | 92.1 | 97.7 | 97.9 | 96.2 | 87.5 | 42.6 | 25.9 |
| 1953 | 86.9 | 51.7 | 78.5 | 92.2 | 97.6 | 98.2 | 96.6 | 87.9 | 41.6 | 24.6 |
| 1954 | 86.4 | 48.3 | 76.5 | 91.5 | 97.5 | 98.1 | 96.5 | 88.7 | 40.5 | 24.7 |
| 1955 | 86.2 | 49.5 | 77.1 | 90.8 | 97.7 | 98.1 | 96.5 | 87.9 | 39.6 | 24.0 |
| 1956 | 86.3 | 52.6 | 77.9 | 90.8 | 97.4 | 98.0 | 96.6 | 88.5 | 40.0 | 26.6 |
| 1957 | 85.5 | 51.1 | 77.7 | 89.8 | 97.3 | 97.9 | 96.4 | 87.5 | 37.5 | 25.1 |
| 1958 | 85.0 | 47.9 | 75.7 | 89.5 | 97.3 | 98.0 | 96.3 | 87.8 | 35.6 | 23.8 |
| 1959 | 84.5 | 46.0 | 75.5 | 90.1 | 97.5 | 97.8 | 96.0 | 87.4 | 34.2 | 24.2 |
| 1960 | 84.0 | 46.8 | 73.6 | 90.2 | 97.7 | 97.7 | 95.8 | 86.8 | 33.1 | 22.3 |
| 1961 | 83.6 | 45.4 | 71.3 | 89.8 | 97.6 | 97.7 | 95.6 | 87.3 | 31.7 | 21.8 |
| 1962 | 82.8 | 43.5 | 71.9 | 89.1 | 97.4 | 97.7 | 95.6 | 86.2 | 30.3 | 21.6 |
| 1963 | 82.2 | 42.7 | 73.1 | 88.3 | 97.3 | 97.6 | 95.8 | 86.2 | 28.4 | 20.9 |
| 1964 | 81.9 | 43.6 | 72.0 | 88.2 | 97.5 | 97.4 | 95.8 | 85.6 | 28.0 | 20.8 |
| 1965 | 81.5 | 44.6 | 70.0 | 88.0 | 97.4 | 97.4 | 95.6 | 84.7 | 27.9 | 21.4 |
| 1966 | 81.4 | 47.0 | 69.0 | 87.9 | 97.5 | 97.3 | 95.3 | 84.5 | 27.0 | 21.6 |
| 1967 | 81.5 | 47.5 | 70.9 | 87.5 | 97.4 | 97.4 | 95.2 | 84.4 | 27.1 | 22.2 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A-2. Total Labor Force (Including Armed Forces) and Labor Force Participation Rates[1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67—Continued

| Sex and year | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Labor force participation rate—Continued | | | | | | | | | |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 31.8 | 29.5 | 52.3 | 44.9 | 32.0 | 36.3 | 32.7 | 24.3 | 8.1 | 11.2 |
| 1948 | 32.7 | 31.4 | 52.1 | 45.3 | 33.2 | 36.9 | 35.0 | 24.3 | 9.1 | 12.2 |
| 1949 | 33.2 | 31.2 | 53.0 | 45.0 | 33.5 | 38.1 | 35.9 | 25.3 | 9.6 | 11.8 |
| 1950 | 33.9 | 30.1 | 51.3 | 46.1 | 34.0 | 39.1 | 38.0 | 27.0 | 9.7 | 12.7 |
| 1951 | 34.7 | 32.2 | 52.7 | 46.6 | 35.4 | 39.8 | 39.7 | 27.6 | 8.9 | 11.9 |
| 1952 | 34.8 | 33.4 | 51.4 | 44.8 | 35.5 | 40.5 | 40.1 | 28.7 | 9.1 | 11.1 |
| 1953 | 34.5 | 31.0 | 50.8 | 44.5 | 34.1 | 41.3 | 40.4 | 29.1 | 10.0 | 10.8 |
| 1954 | 34.6 | 28.7 | 50.5 | 45.3 | 34.5 | 41.3 | 41.2 | 30.1 | 9.3 | 11.3 |
| 1955 | 35.7 | 28.9 | 51.0 | 46.0 | 34.9 | 41.6 | 43.8 | 32.5 | 10.6 | 11.3 |
| 1956 | 36.9 | 32.8 | 52.1 | 46.4 | 35.4 | 43.1 | 45.5 | 34.9 | 10.9 | 12.9 |
| 1957 | 36.9 | 31.1 | 51.5 | 46.0 | 35.6 | 43.3 | 46.5 | 34.5 | 10.5 | 12.5 |
| 1958 | 37.1 | 28.1 | 51.0 | 46.4 | 35.6 | 43.4 | 47.9 | 35.2 | 10.3 | 12.1 |
| 1959 | 37.2 | 28.8 | 49.1 | 45.2 | 35.4 | 43.4 | 49.0 | 36.6 | 10.2 | 12.9 |
| 1960 | 37.8 | 29.1 | 51.1 | 46.2 | 36.0 | 43.5 | 49.8 | 37.2 | 10.8 | 12.6 |
| 1961 | 38.1 | 28.5 | 51.1 | 47.1 | 36.4 | 43.8 | 50.1 | 37.9 | 10.7 | 13.1 |
| 1962 | 38.0 | 27.1 | 50.9 | 47.4 | 36.4 | 44.1 | 50.0 | 38.7 | 9.9 | 13.2 |
| 1963 | 38.3 | 27.1 | 50.6 | 47.6 | 37.2 | 44.9 | 50.6 | 39.7 | 9.6 | 11.8 |
| 1964 | 38.7 | 27.4 | 49.3 | 49.5 | 37.3 | 45.0 | 51.4 | 40.2 | 10.1 | 12.0 |
| 1965 | 39.3 | 27.7 | 49.4 | 50.0 | 38.6 | 46.1 | 50.9 | 41.1 | 10.0 | 12.2 |
| 1966 | 40.3 | 30.7 | 52.1 | 51.5 | 39.9 | 46.9 | 51.7 | 41.8 | 9.6 | 13.5 |
| 1967 | 41.1 | 31.0 | 52.3 | 53.4 | 41.9 | 48.1 | 51.8 | 42.4 | 9.6 | 14.7 |

[1] Percent of noninstitutional population in the labor force.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table A-3. Civilian Labor Force for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67[1]

[Thousands]

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **MALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 42,686 | 1,106 | 1,382 | 4,629 | 10,207 | 9,492 | 7,847 | 5,647 | 2,376 | 586 |
| 1948 | 43,286 | 1,109 | 1,491 | 4,674 | 10,327 | 9,596 | 7,942 | 5,764 | 2,384 | 572 |
| 1949 | 43,498 | 1,056 | 1,421 | 4,681 | 10,410 | 9,722 | 8,008 | 5,748 | 2,454 | 577 |
| 1950 | 43,819 | 1,047 | 1,457 | 4,632 | 10,527 | 9,793 | 8,117 | 5,794 | 2,454 | 623 |
| 1951 | 43,001 | 1,080 | 1,266 | 3,935 | 10,375 | 9,798 | 8,204 | 5,874 | 2,469 | 611 |
| 1952 | 42,869 | 1,101 | 1,210 | 3,338 | 10,585 | 9,945 | 8,326 | 5,950 | 2,415 | 585 |
| 1953[2] | 43,633 | 1,070 | 1,249 | 3,054 | 10,737 | 10,436 | 8,570 | 5,974 | 2,544 | 561 |
| 1954 | 43,965 | 1,024 | 1,273 | 3,052 | 10,772 | 10,513 | 8,703 | 6,105 | 2,525 | 572 |
| 1955 | 44,475 | 1,070 | 1,299 | 3,221 | 10,805 | 10,595 | 8,839 | 6,122 | 2,526 | 566 |
| 1956 | 45,091 | 1,142 | 1,292 | 3,485 | 10,685 | 10,663 | 9,002 | 6,220 | 2,603 | 665 |
| 1957 | 45,197 | 1,127 | 1,290 | 3,626 | 10,571 | 10,731 | 9,153 | 6,222 | 2,478 | 685 |
| 1958 | 45,521 | 1,133 | 1,295 | 3,771 | 10,475 | 10,843 | 9,320 | 6,304 | 2,379 | 676 |
| 1959 | 45,886 | 1,207 | 1,391 | 3,940 | 10,346 | 10,899 | 9,437 | 6,345 | 2,322 | 676 |
| 1960[2] | 46,388 | 1,290 | 1,496 | 4,123 | 10,252 | 10,967 | 9,574 | 6,400 | 2,287 | 637 |
| 1961 | 46,653 | 1,210 | 1,583 | 4,255 | 10,176 | 11,012 | 9,667 | 6,530 | 2,220 | 725 |
| 1962[2] | 46,600 | 1,177 | 1,592 | 4,279 | 9,921 | 11,115 | 9,715 | 6,560 | 2,241 | 780 |
| 1963 | 47,129 | 1,321 | 1,586 | 4,514 | 9,875 | 11,187 | 9,836 | 6,674 | 2,135 | 738 |
| 1964 | 47,679 | 1,498 | 1,576 | 4,754 | 9,875 | 11,155 | 9,956 | 6,740 | 2,123 | 731 |
| 1965 | 48,255 | 1,531 | 1,866 | 4,894 | 9,902 | 11,121 | 10,045 | 6,763 | 2,131 | 759 |
| 1966 | 48,471 | 1,610 | 2,074 | 4,820 | 9,948 | 10,983 | 10,100 | 6,847 | 2,089 | 790 |
| 1967 | 48,967 | 1,658 | 1,976 | 5,043 | 10,207 | 10,860 | 10,189 | 6,938 | 2,118 | 838 |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 16,664 | 643 | 1,192 | 2,716 | 3,740 | 3,676 | 2,731 | 1,522 | 445 | 232 |
| 1948 | 17,335 | 671 | 1,164 | 2,719 | 3,932 | 3,800 | 2,972 | 1,565 | 514 | 248 |
| 1949 | 17,788 | 648 | 1,163 | 2,659 | 3,997 | 3,989 | 3,099 | 1,678 | 556 | 242 |
| 1950 | 18,389 | 611 | 1,101 | 2,675 | 4,092 | 4,161 | 3,327 | 1,839 | 584 | 268 |
| 1951 | 19,016 | 662 | 1,095 | 2,659 | 4,292 | 4,301 | 3,534 | 1,923 | 551 | 255 |
| 1952 | 19,269 | 706 | 1,046 | 2,502 | 4,320 | 4,438 | 3,636 | 2,032 | 590 | 244 |
| 1953[2] | 19,382 | 656 | 1,050 | 2,428 | 4,162 | 4,662 | 3,680 | 2,048 | 693 | 239 |
| 1954 | 19,678 | 620 | 1,062 | 2,424 | 4,212 | 4,709 | 3,822 | 2,164 | 666 | 253 |
| 1955 | 20,548 | 641 | 1,083 | 2,445 | 4,251 | 4,805 | 4,154 | 2,391 | 780 | 258 |
| 1956 | 21,461 | 736 | 1,127 | 2,455 | 4,276 | 5,031 | 4,405 | 2,610 | 821 | 313 |
| 1957 | 21,732 | 716 | 1,144 | 2,442 | 4,255 | 5,116 | 4,615 | 2,631 | 813 | 332 |
| 1958 | 22,118 | 685 | 1,147 | 2,500 | 4,193 | 5,185 | 4,859 | 2,727 | 822 | 333 |
| 1959 | 22,483 | 765 | 1,131 | 2,473 | 4,089 | 5,227 | 5,061 | 2,883 | 836 | 349 |
| 1960[2] | 23,240 | 805 | 1,250 | 2,580 | 4,131 | 5,303 | 5,278 | 2,986 | 907 | 347 |
| 1961 | 23,806 | 774 | 1,368 | 2,697 | 4,143 | 5,389 | 5,403 | 3,105 | 926 | 419 |
| 1962[2] | 24,014 | 742 | 1,405 | 2,802 | 4,103 | 5,474 | 5,381 | 3,198 | 911 | 460 |
| 1963 | 24,704 | 850 | 1,381 | 2,959 | 4,174 | 5,600 | 5,503 | 3,332 | 905 | 405 |
| 1964 | 25,412 | 950 | 1,364 | 3,210 | 4,180 | 5,614 | 5,690 | 3,447 | 966 | 411 |
| 1965 | 26,200 | 954 | 1,559 | 3,364 | 4,329 | 5,720 | 5,712 | 3,587 | 976 | 421 |
| 1966 | 27,299 | 1,054 | 1,819 | 3,589 | 4,508 | 5,756 | 5,883 | 3,727 | 963 | 481 |
| 1967 | 28,360 | 1,076 | 1,811 | 3,967 | 4,848 | 5,844 | 5,984 | 3,855 | 978 | 539 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A–3. Civilian Labor Force for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67 [1]—Continued

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 39,760 | 895 | 1,094 | 2,656 | 9,695 | 9,516 | 7,914 | 5,654 | 2,338 | 495 |
| 1955 | 40,196 | 934 | 1,121 | 2,802 | 9,720 | 9,598 | 8,027 | 5,653 | 2,342 | 487 |
| 1956 | 40,734 | 1,003 | 1,111 | 3,034 | 9,594 | 9,662 | 8,175 | 5,736 | 2,417 | 586 |
| 1957 | 40,821 | 992 | 1,115 | 3,153 | 9,483 | 9,719 | 8,317 | 5,735 | 2,308 | 607 |
| 1958 | 41,080 | 1,001 | 1,116 | 3,278 | 9,386 | 9,822 | 8,465 | 5,800 | 2,213 | 606 |
| 1959 | 41,397 | 1,077 | 1,202 | 3,408 | 9,261 | 9,876 | 8,581 | 5,833 | 2,158 | 596 |
| 1960 [2] | 41,742 | 1,140 | 1,293 | 3,559 | 9,153 | 9,919 | 8,689 | 5,861 | 2,129 | 555 |
| 1961 | 41,986 | 1,067 | 1,372 | 3,681 | 9,072 | 9,961 | 8,776 | 5,988 | 2,068 | 649 |
| 1962 [2] | 41,931 | 1,041 | 1,391 | 3,726 | 8,846 | 10,029 | 8,820 | 5,995 | 2,082 | 710 |
| 1963 | 42,404 | 1,183 | 1,380 | 3,955 | 8,805 | 10,079 | 8,944 | 6,090 | 1,967 | 661 |
| 1964 | 42,893 | 1,345 | 1,371 | 4,166 | 8,800 | 10,055 | 9,053 | 6,160 | 1,943 | 646 |
| 1965 | 43,400 | 1,359 | 1,639 | 4,279 | 8,823 | 10,023 | 9,129 | 6,188 | 1,958 | 669 |
| 1966 | 43,572 | 1,423 | 1,831 | 4,200 | 8,859 | 9,892 | 9,189 | 6,250 | 1,928 | 706 |
| 1967 | 44,042 | 1,464 | 1,727 | 4,416 | 9,101 | 9,784 | 9,260 | 6,349 | 1,943 | 738 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 17,057 | 552 | 960 | 2,098 | 3,532 | 4,025 | 3,346 | 1,937 | 607 | 205 |
| 1955 | 17,886 | 576 | 966 | 2,137 | 3,546 | 4,131 | 3,654 | 2,156 | 720 | 224 |
| 1956 | 18,693 | 654 | 1,003 | 2,158 | 3,559 | 4,340 | 3,886 | 2,344 | 748 | 269 |
| 1957 | 18,920 | 645 | 1,022 | 2,131 | 3,561 | 4,397 | 4,065 | 2,357 | 743 | 292 |
| 1958 | 19,213 | 614 | 1,028 | 2,172 | 3,498 | 4,435 | 4,262 | 2,454 | 751 | 295 |
| 1959 | 19,556 | 698 | 1,023 | 2,135 | 3,409 | 4,479 | 4,467 | 2,577 | 767 | 307 |
| 1960 [2] | 20,171 | 731 | 1,112 | 2,228 | 3,441 | 4,531 | 4,633 | 2,661 | 835 | 300 |
| 1961 | 20,668 | 700 | 1,222 | 2,345 | 3,431 | 4,596 | 4,741 | 2,785 | 849 | 376 |
| 1962 [2] | 20,819 | 668 | 1,254 | 2,438 | 3,372 | 4,666 | 4,731 | 2,861 | 830 | 418 |
| 1963 | 21,426 | 767 | 1,228 | 2,582 | 3,424 | 4,780 | 4,845 | 2,977 | 823 | 365 |
| 1964 | 22,028 | 867 | 1,201 | 2,786 | 3,435 | 4,797 | 4,989 | 3,077 | 874 | 374 |
| 1965 | 22,736 | 862 | 1,405 | 2,910 | 3,568 | 4,876 | 5,032 | 3,203 | 879 | 382 |
| 1966 | 23,702 | 944 | 1,630 | 3,123 | 3,732 | 4,894 | 5,181 | 3,333 | 865 | 444 |
| 1967 | 24,657 | 967 | 1,591 | 3,470 | 4,021 | 4,980 | 5,285 | 3,468 | 877 | 485 |
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 4,203 | 127 | 178 | 396 | 1,075 | 997 | 790 | 451 | 187 | 79 |
| 1955 | 4,279 | 135 | 178 | 419 | 1,085 | 998 | 813 | 468 | 183 | 79 |
| 1956 | 4,359 | 140 | 181 | 450 | 1,090 | 1,002 | 827 | 484 | 185 | 77 |
| 1957 | 4,376 | 135 | 175 | 473 | 1,088 | 1,012 | 836 | 487 | 170 | 78 |
| 1958 | 4,442 | 133 | 180 | 493 | 1,089 | 1,021 | 855 | 505 | 166 | 69 |
| 1959 | 4,490 | 130 | 188 | 532 | 1,085 | 1,023 | 849 | 512 | 163 | 79 |
| 1960 [2] | 4,645 | 150 | 203 | 564 | 1,099 | 1,049 | 884 | 538 | 158 | 83 |
| 1961 | 4,666 | 142 | 210 | 575 | 1,103 | 1,050 | 891 | 542 | 151 | 77 |
| 1962 [2] | 4,668 | 136 | 201 | 553 | 1,074 | 1,087 | 895 | 564 | 159 | 71 |
| 1963 | 4,725 | 138 | 206 | 558 | 1,070 | 1,109 | 891 | 584 | 168 | 77 |
| 1964 | 4,785 | 154 | 205 | 588 | 1,074 | 1,101 | 903 | 580 | 181 | 86 |
| 1965 | 4,855 | 172 | 226 | 614 | 1,079 | 1,098 | 916 | 575 | 173 | 90 |
| 1966 | 4,899 | 187 | 244 | 620 | 1,089 | 1,090 | 912 | 597 | 162 | 84 |
| 1967 | 4,945 | 194 | 249 | 628 | 1,106 | 1,076 | 929 | 590 | 175 | 91 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 2,621 | 68 | 101 | 326 | 680 | 684 | 476 | 226 | 59 | 47 |
| 1955 | 2,663 | 65 | 117 | 307 | 706 | 673 | 499 | 235 | 60 | 34 |
| 1956 | 2,768 | 82 | 124 | 297 | 717 | 692 | 519 | 266 | 72 | 44 |
| 1957 | 2,812 | 71 | 122 | 311 | 694 | 719 | 550 | 274 | 70 | 40 |
| 1958 | 2,905 | 71 | 120 | 328 | 695 | 750 | 597 | 274 | 72 | 38 |
| 1959 | 2,928 | 66 | 107 | 338 | 680 | 748 | 614 | 304 | 69 | 42 |
| 1960 [2] | 3,069 | 74 | 139 | 352 | 690 | 771 | 645 | 324 | 73 | 47 |
| 1961 | 3,136 | 74 | 146 | 353 | 712 | 793 | 662 | 320 | 77 | 44 |
| 1962 [2] | 3,195 | 73 | 151 | 364 | 730 | 809 | 650 | 336 | 82 | 42 |
| 1963 | 3,279 | 82 | 153 | 377 | 749 | 821 | 656 | 354 | 84 | 39 |
| 1964 | 3,384 | 83 | 164 | 424 | 744 | 818 | 690 | 370 | 92 | 37 |
| 1965 | 3,464 | 92 | 154 | 454 | 761 | 844 | 680 | 383 | 96 | 39 |
| 1966 | 3,597 | 110 | 188 | 466 | 777 | 863 | 702 | 394 | 99 | 37 |
| 1967 | 3,704 | 110 | 219 | 497 | 827 | 864 | 699 | 387 | 102 | 48 |

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[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 because population controls by color were not introduced into the Current Population Survey until that year.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–4. Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates[1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–67

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 86.5 | 51.2 | 76.2 | 84.4 | 96.0 | 98.0 | 95.9 | 89.6 | 46.5 | 26.1 |
| 1949 | 86.4 | 50.1 | 74.8 | 86.5 | 95.9 | 98.0 | 95.6 | 87.6 | 46.6 | 26.3 |
| 1950 | 86.4 | 50.5 | 75.6 | 87.5 | 96.4 | 97.7 | 95.9 | 87.3 | 45.8 | 27.6 |
| 1951 | 86.5 | 52.7 | 74.2 | 88.4 | 97.0 | 97.6 | 96.0 | 87.4 | 44.5 | 26.9 |
| 1952 | 86.2 | 51.9 | 72.7 | 87.6 | 97.6 | 97.9 | 96.3 | 87.7 | 42.5 | 25.3 |
| 1953 | 86.1 | 49.8 | 72.8 | 87.4 | 97.5 | 97.9 | 96.4 | 87.7 | 41.3 | 23.6 |
| 1954 | 85.6 | 47.1 | 70.4 | 86.4 | 97.5 | 98.2 | 96.8 | 89.2 | 40.4 | 24.5 |
| 1955 | 85.4 | 48.0 | 71.7 | 85.6 | 97.8 | 98.3 | 96.7 | 88.4 | 39.5 | 23.5 |
| 1956 | 85.6 | 51.3 | 71.9 | 87.6 | 97.4 | 98.1 | 96.8 | 88.9 | 40.0 | 26.7 |
| 1957 | 84.8 | 49.6 | 71.6 | 86.7 | 97.2 | 98.0 | 96.6 | 88.0 | 37.7 | 25.1 |
| 1958 | 84.3 | 46.8 | 69.4 | 86.7 | 97.2 | 98.0 | 96.6 | 88.2 | 35.7 | 24.1 |
| 1959 | 83.8 | 45.4 | 70.3 | 87.3 | 97.5 | 98.0 | 96.3 | 87.9 | 34.3 | 24.2 |
| 1960 | 83.4 | 46.0 | 69.0 | 87.8 | 97.7 | 97.9 | 96.1 | 87.2 | 33.3 | 22.2 |
| 1961 | 83.0 | 44.3 | 66.2 | 87.6 | 97.7 | 97.9 | 95.9 | 87.8 | 31.9 | 22.2 |
| 1962 | 82.1 | 42.9 | 66.4 | 86.5 | 97.4 | 97.9 | 96.0 | 86.7 | 30.6 | 22.3 |
| 1963 | 81.5 | 42.4 | 67.8 | 85.8 | 97.4 | 97.8 | 96.2 | 86.6 | 28.4 | 21.4 |
| 1964 | 81.1 | 43.5 | 66.6 | 85.7 | 97.5 | 97.6 | 96.1 | 86.1 | 27.9 | 21.2 |
| 1965 | 80.8 | 44.6 | 65.8 | 85.3 | 97.4 | 97.7 | 95.9 | 85.2 | 27.9 | 21.7 |
| 1966 | 80.6 | 47.1 | 65.4 | 84.4 | 97.5 | 97.6 | 95.8 | 84.9 | 27.2 | 22.3 |
| 1967 | 80.7 | 47.9 | 66.1 | 84.0 | 97.5 | 97.7 | 95.6 | 84.9 | 27.1 | 22.6 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 31.3 | 31.7 | 53.5 | 45.1 | 31.3 | 35.1 | 33.3 | 23.3 | 8.6 | 11.1 |
| 1949 | 31.8 | 31.4 | 54.0 | 44.4 | 31.7 | 36.1 | 34.3 | 24.2 | 9.1 | 10.3 |
| 1950 | 32.6 | 30.1 | 52.6 | 45.9 | 32.1 | 37.2 | 36.2 | 26.0 | 9.2 | 11.5 |
| 1951 | 33.4 | 32.4 | 54.1 | 46.7 | 33.6 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 26.5 | 8.5 | 11.2 |
| 1952 | 33.6 | 34.1 | 52.0 | 44.8 | 33.8 | 38.9 | 38.8 | 27.6 | 8.7 | 10.2 |
| 1953 | 33.4 | 31.2 | 51.9 | 44.1 | 31.7 | 38.8 | 38.7 | 28.5 | 9.4 | 9.9 |
| 1954 | 33.3 | 29.3 | 52.1 | 44.4 | 32.5 | 39.4 | 39.8 | 29.1 | 9.1 | 10.5 |
| 1955 | 34.5 | 29.9 | 52.0 | 45.8 | 32.8 | 39.9 | 42.7 | 31.8 | 10.5 | 11.2 |
| 1956 | 35.7 | 33.5 | 53.0 | 46.5 | 33.2 | 41.5 | 44.4 | 34.0 | 10.6 | 12.7 |
| 1957 | 35.7 | 32.1 | 52.6 | 45.8 | 33.6 | 41.5 | 45.4 | 33.7 | 10.2 | 12.5 |
| 1958 | 35.8 | 28.8 | 52.3 | 46.1 | 33.6 | 41.4 | 46.5 | 34.5 | 10.1 | 12.2 |
| 1959 | 36.0 | 29.9 | 50.8 | 44.5 | 33.4 | 41.4 | 47.8 | 35.7 | 10.2 | 13.0 |
| 1960 | 36.5 | 30.0 | 51.9 | 45.7 | 34.1 | 41.5 | 48.6 | 36.2 | 10.6 | 12.5 |
| 1961 | 36.9 | 29.4 | 51.9 | 46.9 | 34.3 | 41.8 | 48.9 | 37.2 | 10.5 | 13.5 |
| 1962 | 36.7 | 27.9 | 51.6 | 47.1 | 34.1 | 42.2 | 48.9 | 38.0 | 9.8 | 13.7 |
| 1963 | 37.2 | 27.9 | 51.3 | 47.3 | 34.8 | 43.1 | 49.5 | 38.9 | 9.4 | 12.2 |
| 1964 | 37.5 | 28.5 | 49.6 | 48.8 | 35.0 | 43.3 | 50.2 | 39.4 | 9.9 | 12.7 |
| 1965 | 38.1 | 28.7 | 50.6 | 49.2 | 36.3 | 44.3 | 49.9 | 40.3 | 9.7 | 12.9 |
| 1966 | 39.2 | 31.8 | 53.1 | 51.0 | 37.7 | 45.0 | 50.6 | 41.1 | 9.4 | 14.5 |
| 1967 | 40.1 | 32.3 | 52.7 | 53.1 | 39.7 | 46.4 | 50.9 | 41.9 | 9.3 | 15.4 |
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 87.3 | 59.8 | 77.8 | 85.6 | 95.3 | 97.2 | 94.7 | 88.6 | 50.3 | 39.3 |
| 1949 | 87.0 | 60.4 | 80.8 | 89.7 | 94.1 | 97.3 | 95.6 | 86.0 | 51.4 | 36.6 |
| 1950 | 85.9 | 57.4 | 78.2 | 91.4 | 92.6 | 96.2 | 95.1 | 81.9 | 45.5 | 37.7 |
| 1951 | 86.3 | 54.7 | 80.8 | 88.7 | 95.7 | 96.4 | 95.1 | 84.6 | 49.5 | 34.6 |
| 1952 | 86.8 | 52.3 | 79.1 | 92.8 | 96.2 | 97.2 | 95.0 | 85.7 | 43.3 | 30.5 |
| 1953 | 86.2 | 53.0 | 76.7 | 92.3 | 96.7 | 97.3 | 93.9 | 86.7 | 41.1 | 27.8 |
| 1954 | 85.2 | 46.7 | 78.4 | 91.1 | 96.2 | 96.6 | 93.2 | 83.0 | 41.2 | 27.2 |
| 1955 | 85.0 | 48.2 | 75.7 | 89.7 | 95.8 | 96.2 | 94.2 | 83.1 | 40.0 | 27.1 |
| 1956 | 85.1 | 49.6 | 76.4 | 88.9 | 96.2 | 96.2 | 94.4 | 83.9 | 39.8 | 25.5 |
| 1957 | 84.3 | 47.5 | 72.0 | 89.6 | 96.1 | 96.5 | 93.5 | 82.4 | 35.9 | 24.7 |
| 1958 | 84.0 | 45.1 | 71.7 | 88.7 | 96.3 | 96.4 | 93.9 | 83.3 | 34.5 | 21.3 |
| 1959 | 83.4 | 41.7 | 72.0 | 90.8 | 96.3 | 95.8 | 92.8 | 82.5 | 33.5 | 23.9 |
| 1960 | 83.0 | 45.6 | 71.2 | 90.4 | 96.2 | 95.5 | 92.3 | 82.5 | 31.2 | 23.3 |
| 1961 | 82.2 | 42.5 | 70.5 | 89.7 | 95.9 | 94.8 | 92.3 | 81.6 | 29.4 | 19.2 |
| 1962 | 80.8 | 40.2 | 68.8 | 89.3 | 95.3 | 94.5 | 92.2 | 81.5 | 27.2 | 16.5 |
| 1963 | 80.2 | 37.2 | 69.1 | 88.6 | 94.9 | 94.9 | 91.1 | 82.5 | 27.6 | 17.2 |
| 1964 | 80.0 | 37.3 | 67.2 | 89.4 | 95.9 | 94.4 | 91.6 | 80.6 | 29.6 | 18.7 |
| 1965 | 79.6 | 39.3 | 66.7 | 89.8 | 95.7 | 94.2 | 92.0 | 78.8 | 27.9 | 18.9 |
| 1966 | 79.0 | 41.1 | 63.7 | 89.9 | 95.5 | 94.1 | 90.7 | 81.1 | 25.6 | 17.3 |
| 1967 | 78.5 | 41.2 | 62.7 | 87.2 | 95.5 | 93.6 | 91.3 | 79.3 | 27.2 | 18.1 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 45.6 | 29.1 | 41.2 | 47.1 | 50.6 | 53.3 | 51.1 | 37.6 | 17.5 | 21.0 |
| 1949 | 46.9 | 30.1 | 44.8 | 49.8 | 50.9 | 56.1 | 52.7 | 39.6 | 15.6 | 23.5 |
| 1950 | 46.9 | 30.2 | 40.6 | 46.9 | 51.6 | 55.7 | 54.3 | 40.9 | 16.5 | 22.0 |
| 1951 | 46.3 | 30.4 | 40.2 | 45.4 | 51.1 | 55.8 | 55.5 | 39.8 | 14.0 | 17.3 |
| 1952 | 45.5 | 27.4 | 44.7 | 43.9 | 50.1 | 54.0 | 52.7 | 42.3 | 14.3 | 18.5 |
| 1953 | 43.6 | 24.2 | 37.8 | 45.1 | 48.1 | 54.9 | 51.0 | 35.9 | 11.4 | 14.9 |
| 1954 | 46.1 | 24.5 | 37.7 | 49.6 | 49.7 | 57.5 | 53.4 | 41.2 | 12.2 | 16.2 |
| 1955 | 46.1 | 22.7 | 43.2 | 46.7 | 51.3 | 56.0 | 54.8 | 40.7 | 12.1 | 11.4 |
| 1956 | 47.3 | 23.3 | 44.6 | 44.9 | 52.1 | 57.0 | 55.3 | 44.5 | 14.5 | 14.4 |
| 1957 | 47.2 | 24.1 | 42.8 | 46.6 | 50.4 | 58.7 | 56.8 | 44.3 | 13.6 | 12.6 |
| 1958 | 48.0 | 23.2 | 41.2 | 48.3 | 50.8 | 60.8 | 59.8 | 42.8 | 13.3 | 11.6 |
| 1959 | 47.7 | 20.7 | 36.1 | 48.8 | 50.0 | 60.0 | 60.0 | 46.4 | 12.6 | 12.6 |
| 1960 | 48.2 | 22.1 | 44.3 | 48.8 | 49.7 | 59.8 | 60.5 | 47.3 | 12.8 | 13.2 |
| 1961 | 48.3 | 21.6 | 44.6 | 47.7 | 51.2 | 60.5 | 61.1 | 45.2 | 13.1 | 11.0 |
| 1962 | 48.0 | 21.0 | 45.5 | 48.6 | 52.0 | 59.7 | 60.5 | 46.1 | 12.2 | 9.7 |
| 1963 | 48.1 | 21.5 | 44.9 | 49.2 | 53.3 | 59.4 | 60.6 | 47.3 | 11.8 | 8.7 |
| 1964 | 48.5 | 19.5 | 46.5 | 53.6 | 52.8 | 58.4 | 62.3 | 48.4 | 12.7 | 8.0 |
| 1965 | 48.6 | 20.5 | 40.0 | 55.2 | 54.0 | 59.9 | 60.2 | 48.9 | 12.9 | 8.1 |
| 1966 | 49.3 | 23.6 | 44.0 | 54.5 | 54.9 | 60.9 | 61.0 | 49.1 | 13.0 | 7.5 |
| 1967 | 49.5 | 22.8 | 48.7 | 54.9 | 57.5 | 60.8 | 59.6 | 47.1 | 13.0 | 9.4 |

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[1] Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.

# Table A–5. Employment Status of the Civilian Labor Force, by Color, for Teenagers 16 to 19 Years Old and for Adults: Annual Averages, 1954–67 [1]

| Employment status and year | White | | | | Nonwhite | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total, 16 years and over | 16 to 19 years, both sexes | 20 years and over | | Total, 16 years and over | 16 to 19 years, both sexes | 20 years and over | |
| | | | Male | Female | | | Male | Female |
| **CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE (thousands)** | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 56,817 | 3,501 | 37,770 | 15,543 | 6,824 | 474 | 3,898 | 2,453 |
| 1955 | 58,082 | 3,597 | 38,143 | 16,346 | 6,942 | 495 | 3,966 | 2,480 |
| 1956 | 59,427 | 3,771 | 38,620 | 17,035 | 7,127 | 527 | 4,038 | 2,563 |
| 1957 | 59,741 | 3,774 | 38,714 | 17,253 | 7,188 | 503 | 4,066 | 2,619 |
| 1958 | 60,293 | 3,759 | 38,964 | 17,572 | 7,347 | 504 | 4,130 | 2,713 |
| 1959 | 60,953 | 4,000 | 39,118 | 17,834 | 7,418 | 491 | 4,171 | 2,755 |
| 1960 [2] | 61,913 | 4,276 | 39,310 | 18,330 | 7,714 | 566 | 4,293 | 2,855 |
| 1961 | 62,654 | 4,361 | 39,547 | 18,747 | 7,802 | 572 | 4,313 | 2,918 |
| 1962 [2] | 62,750 | 4,354 | 39,499 | 18,897 | 7,863 | 561 | 4,332 | 2,970 |
| 1963 | 63,830 | 4,558 | 39,841 | 19,430 | 8,004 | 579 | 4,381 | 3,042 |
| 1964 | 64,921 | 4,784 | 40,177 | 19,960 | 8,169 | 606 | 4,427 | 3,138 |
| 1965 | 66,136 | 5,265 | 40,401 | 20,468 | 8,319 | 644 | 4,456 | 3,218 |
| 1966 | 67,274 | 5,828 | 40,318 | 21,128 | 8,496 | 729 | 4,468 | 3,299 |
| 1967 | 68,699 | 5,748 | 40,851 | 22,100 | 8,648 | 771 | 4,502 | 3,375 |
| **EMPLOYED (thousands)** | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 53,957 | 3,079 | 36,123 | 14,755 | 6,150 | 396 | 3,511 | 2,244 |
| 1955 | 55,834 | 3,226 | 36,896 | 15,712 | 6,341 | 417 | 3,632 | 2,290 |
| 1956 | 57,265 | 3,387 | 37,474 | 16,404 | 6,535 | 431 | 3,742 | 2,362 |
| 1957 | 57,452 | 3,373 | 37,479 | 16,600 | 6,619 | 407 | 3,760 | 2,452 |
| 1958 | 56,614 | 3,217 | 36,808 | 16,589 | 6,422 | 366 | 3,604 | 2,454 |
| 1959 | 58,005 | 3,475 | 37,533 | 16,998 | 6,624 | 363 | 3,734 | 2,527 |
| 1960 [2] | 58,850 | 3,701 | 37,663 | 17,487 | 6,927 | 428 | 3,880 | 2,618 |
| 1961 | 58,912 | 3,692 | 37,533 | 17,687 | 6,832 | 414 | 3,809 | 2,610 |
| 1962 [2] | 59,698 | 3,774 | 37,918 | 18,006 | 7,004 | 420 | 3,897 | 2,686 |
| 1963 | 60,622 | 3,850 | 38,272 | 18,499 | 7,140 | 403 | 3,979 | 2,757 |
| 1964 | 61,922 | 4,076 | 38,798 | 19,048 | 7,383 | 441 | 4,088 | 2,855 |
| 1965 | 63,445 | 4,562 | 39,232 | 19,652 | 7,643 | 475 | 4,190 | 2,979 |
| 1966 | 65,019 | 5,176 | 39,417 | 20,426 | 7,875 | 544 | 4,249 | 3,082 |
| 1967 | 66,361 | 5,113 | 39,985 | 21,263 | 8,011 | 569 | 4,309 | 3,134 |
| **UNEMPLOYED (thousands)** | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 2,860 | 422 | 1,647 | 788 | 674 | 78 | 387 | 209 |
| 1955 | 2,248 | 371 | 1,247 | 634 | 601 | 78 | 334 | 190 |
| 1956 | 2,162 | 384 | 1,146 | 631 | 592 | 96 | 296 | 201 |
| 1957 | 2,289 | 401 | 1,236 | 657 | 569 | 96 | 306 | 165 |
| 1958 | 3,679 | 542 | 2,156 | 983 | 925 | 138 | 526 | 259 |
| 1959 | 2,947 | 525 | 1,585 | 836 | 794 | 128 | 437 | 228 |
| 1960 [2] | 3,063 | 575 | 1,647 | 843 | 787 | 138 | 413 | 237 |
| 1961 | 3,742 | 669 | 2,014 | 1,060 | 970 | 158 | 504 | 308 |
| 1962 [2] | 3,052 | 580 | 1,581 | 891 | 859 | 141 | 435 | 284 |
| 1963 | 3,208 | 708 | 1,569 | 931 | 864 | 176 | 402 | 285 |
| 1964 | 2,999 | 708 | 1,379 | 912 | 786 | 165 | 339 | 283 |
| 1965 | 2,691 | 703 | 1,169 | 817 | 676 | 169 | 267 | 239 |
| 1966 | 2,253 | 651 | 901 | 703 | 621 | 185 | 219 | 217 |
| 1967 | 2,338 | 635 | 866 | 837 | 638 | 204 | 193 | 241 |
| **UNEMPLOYMENT RATE** | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 5.0 | 12.1 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 9.9 | 16.5 | 9.9 | 8.5 |
| 1955 | 3.9 | 10.3 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 8.7 | 15.8 | 8.4 | 7.7 |
| 1956 | 3.6 | 10.2 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 8.3 | 18.2 | 7.3 | 7.8 |
| 1957 | 3.8 | 10.6 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 7.9 | 19.1 | 7.5 | 6.3 |
| 1958 | 6.1 | 14.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 12.6 | 27.4 | 12.7 | 9.5 |
| 1959 | 4.8 | 13.1 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 10.7 | 26.1 | 10.5 | 8.3 |
| 1960 [2] | 4.9 | 13.4 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 10.2 | 24.4 | 9.6 | 8.3 |
| 1961 | 6.0 | 15.3 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 12.4 | 27.6 | 11.7 | 10.6 |
| 1962 [2] | 4.9 | 13.3 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 10.9 | 25.1 | 10.0 | 9.6 |
| 1963 | 5.0 | 15.5 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 10.8 | 30.4 | 9.2 | 9.4 |
| 1964 | 4.6 | 14.8 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 9.6 | 27.2 | 7.7 | 9.0 |
| 1965 | 4.1 | 13.4 | 2.9 | 4.0 | 8.1 | 26.2 | 6.0 | 7.4 |
| 1966 | 3.3 | 11.2 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 7.3 | 25.4 | 4.9 | 6.6 |
| 1967 | 3.4 | 11.0 | 2.1 | 3.8 | 7.4 | 26.5 | 4.3 | 7.1 |

[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–6. Employment Status of Young Workers 16 to 24 Years Old: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Employment status and year | Total, 16 years and over | Total, 16 to 24 years | 16 to 19 years |  |  | 20 to 24 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  | Total | 16 and 17 | 18 and 19 |  |
| CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE (thousands) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | 59,350 | 11,668 | 4,323 | 1,750 | 2,573 | 7,345 |
| 1948 | 60,621 | 11,828 | 4,435 | 1,780 | 2,655 | 7,393 |
| 1949 | 61,286 | 11,629 | 4,289 | 1,704 | 2,585 | 7,340 |
| 1950 | 62,208 | 11,523 | 4,216 | 1,659 | 2,557 | 7,307 |
| 1951 | 62,017 | 10,699 | 4,105 | 1,743 | 2,362 | 6,594 |
| 1952 | 62,138 | 9,903 | 4,063 | 1,807 | 2,256 | 5,840 |
| 1953 [1] | 63,015 | 9,509 | 4,026 | 1,726 | 2,300 | 5,483 |
| 1954 | 63,643 | 9,452 | 3,976 | 1,643 | 2,333 | 5,476 |
| 1955 | 65,023 | 9,759 | 4,093 | 1,711 | 2,382 | 5,666 |
| 1956 | 66,552 | 10,236 | 4,296 | 1,877 | 2,419 | 5,940 |
| 1957 | 66,929 | 10,344 | 4,276 | 1,843 | 2,433 | 6,068 |
| 1958 | 67,639 | 10,531 | 4,260 | 1,818 | 2,442 | 6,271 |
| 1959 | 68,369 | 10,905 | 4,492 | 1,971 | 2,521 | 6,413 |
| 1960 [1] | 69,628 | 11,543 | 4,840 | 2,093 | 2,747 | 6,703 |
| 1961 | 70,459 | 11,888 | 4,935 | 1,984 | 2,951 | 6,953 |
| 1962 [1] | 70,614 | 11,997 | 4,915 | 1,918 | 2,997 | 7,082 |
| 1963 | 71,833 | 12,611 | 5,138 | 2,171 | 2,967 | 7,473 |
| 1964 | 73,091 | 13,353 | 5,390 | 2,449 | 2,941 | 7,963 |
| 1965 | 74,455 | 14,168 | 5,910 | 2,485 | 3,425 | 8,258 |
| 1966 | 75,770 | 14,966 | 6,557 | 2,664 | 3,893 | 8,409 |
| 1967 | 77,347 | 15,529 | 6,519 | 2,734 | 3,786 | 9,010 |
| EMPLOYED (thousands) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | 57,039 | 10,738 | 3,909 | 1,573 | 2,336 | 6,829 |
| 1948 | 58,344 | 10,965 | 4,028 | 1,602 | 2,426 | 6,937 |
| 1949 | 57,649 | 10,371 | 3,712 | 1,466 | 2,246 | 6,659 |
| 1950 | 58,920 | 10,449 | 3,703 | 1,433 | 2,270 | 6,746 |
| 1951 | 59,962 | 10,088 | 3,767 | 1,575 | 2,192 | 6,321 |
| 1952 | 60,254 | 9,289 | 3,718 | 1,626 | 2,092 | 5,571 |
| 1953 [1] | 61,181 | 8,945 | 3,719 | 1,577 | 2,142 | 5,226 |
| 1954 | 60,110 | 8,446 | 3,475 | 1,422 | 2,053 | 4,971 |
| 1955 | 62,171 | 8,914 | 3,643 | 1,500 | 2,143 | 5,271 |
| 1956 | 63,802 | 9,364 | 3,818 | 1,647 | 2,171 | 5,546 |
| 1957 | 64,071 | 9,418 | 3,780 | 1,613 | 2,167 | 5,638 |
| 1958 | 63,036 | 9,152 | 3,582 | 1,519 | 2,063 | 5,570 |
| 1959 | 64,630 | 9,708 | 3,838 | 1,670 | 2,168 | 5,870 |
| 1960 [1] | 65,778 | 10,249 | 4,129 | 1,769 | 2,360 | 6,120 |
| 1961 | 65,746 | 10,338 | 4,107 | 1,621 | 2,486 | 6,231 |
| 1962 [1] | 66,702 | 10,641 | 4,195 | 1,607 | 2,588 | 6,446 |
| 1963 | 67,762 | 11,070 | 4,255 | 1,751 | 2,504 | 6,815 |
| 1964 | 69,305 | 11,820 | 4,516 | 2,013 | 2,503 | 7,304 |
| 1965 | 71,088 | 12,738 | 5,036 | 2,074 | 2,962 | 7,702 |
| 1966 | 72,895 | 13,684 | 5,721 | 2,269 | 3,452 | 7,963 |
| 1967 | 74,372 | 14,181 | 5,682 | 2,333 | 3,349 | 8,499 |
| UNEMPLOYED (thousands) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | 2,311 | 930 | 414 | 177 | 237 | 516 |
| 1948 | 2,276 | 863 | 407 | 178 | 229 | 456 |
| 1949 | 3,637 | 1,255 | 575 | 238 | 337 | 680 |
| 1950 | 3,288 | 1,074 | 513 | 226 | 287 | 561 |
| 1951 | 2,055 | 609 | 336 | 168 | 168 | 273 |
| 1952 | 1,883 | 613 | 345 | 180 | 165 | 268 |
| 1953 [1] | 1,834 | 563 | 307 | 150 | 157 | 256 |
| 1954 | 3,532 | 1,005 | 501 | 221 | 280 | 504 |
| 1955 | 2,852 | 846 | 450 | 211 | 239 | 396 |
| 1956 | 2,750 | 873 | 478 | 231 | 247 | 395 |
| 1957 | 2,859 | 925 | 496 | 230 | 266 | 429 |
| 1958 | 4,602 | 1,379 | 678 | 299 | 379 | 701 |
| 1959 | 3,740 | 1,197 | 654 | 301 | 353 | 543 |
| 1960 [1] | 3,852 | 1,294 | 711 | 324 | 387 | 583 |
| 1961 | 4,714 | 1,550 | 828 | 363 | 465 | 722 |
| 1962 [1] | 3,911 | 1,356 | 720 | 311 | 409 | 636 |
| 1963 | 4,070 | 1,541 | 883 | 420 | 463 | 658 |
| 1964 | 3,786 | 1,532 | 872 | 435 | 437 | 660 |
| 1965 | 3,366 | 1,431 | 874 | 411 | 463 | 557 |
| 1966 | 2,875 | 1,281 | 836 | 395 | 441 | 445 |
| 1967 | 2,975 | 1,350 | 838 | 401 | 438 | 512 |
| UNEMPLOYMENT RATE |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | 3.9 | 8.0 | 9.6 | 10.1 | 9.2 | 7.0 |
| 1948 | 3.8 | 7.3 | 9.2 | 10.0 | 8.6 | 6.2 |
| 1949 | 5.9 | 10.8 | 13.4 | 14.0 | 13.0 | 9.3 |
| 1950 | 5.3 | 9.3 | 12.2 | 13.6 | 11.2 | 7.7 |
| 1951 | 3.3 | 5.7 | 8.2 | 9.6 | 7.1 | 4.1 |
| 1952 | 3.0 | 6.2 | 8.5 | 10.0 | 7.3 | 4.6 |
| 1953 [1] | 2.9 | 5.9 | 7.6 | 8.7 | 6.8 | 4.7 |
| 1954 | 5.5 | 10.6 | 12.6 | 13.5 | 12.0 | 9.2 |
| 1955 | 4.4 | 8.7 | 11.0 | 12.3 | 10.0 | 7.0 |
| 1956 | 4.1 | 8.5 | 11.1 | 12.3 | 10.2 | 6.6 |
| 1957 | 4.3 | 9.0 | 11.6 | 12.5 | 10.9 | 7.1 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 13.1 | 15.9 | 16.4 | 15.5 | 11.2 |
| 1959 | 5.5 | 11.0 | 14.6 | 15.3 | 14.0 | 8.5 |
| 1960 [1] | 5.5 | 11.2 | 14.7 | 15.5 | 14.1 | 8.7 |
| 1961 | 6.7 | 13.0 | 16.8 | 18.3 | 15.8 | 10.4 |
| 1962 [1] | 5.5 | 11.3 | 14.6 | 16.2 | 13.6 | 9.0 |
| 1963 | 5.7 | 12.2 | 17.2 | 19.3 | 15.6 | 8.8 |
| 1964 | 5.2 | 11.5 | 16.2 | 17.8 | 14.9 | 8.3 |
| 1965 | 4.5 | 10.1 | 14.8 | 16.5 | 13.5 | 6.7 |
| 1966 | 3.8 | 8.6 | 12.7 | 14.8 | 11.3 | 5.3 |
| 1967 | 3.8 | 8.7 | 12.9 | 14.7 | 11.6 | 5.7 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

# Table A–7. Persons 16 Years and Over Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67 [1]

[Thousands]

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **MALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 6,710 | 1,069 | 458 | 907 | 468 | 191 | 369 | 658 | 2,590 | 1,532 |
| 1948 | 6,710 | 1,019 | 460 | 854 | 441 | 202 | 348 | 678 | 2,710 | 1,503 |
| 1949 | 6,825 | 1,006 | 463 | 725 | 462 | 205 | 372 | 821 | 2,773 | 1,529 |
| 1950 | 6,906 | 996 | 463 | 639 | 437 | 242 | 356 | 871 | 2,904 | 1,551 |
| 1951 | 6,725 | 958 | 421 | 517 | 334 | 251 | 347 | 864 | 3,034 | 1,597 |
| 1952 | 6,832 | 1,020 | 437 | 451 | 270 | 220 | 330 | 849 | 3,255 | 1,670 |
| 1953 [2] | 7,117 | 1,052 | 452 | 428 | 282 | 196 | 308 | 823 | 3,576 | 1,723 |
| 1954 | 7,431 | 1,151 | 507 | 458 | 295 | 206 | 316 | 780 | 3,716 | 1,738 |
| 1955 | 7,634 | 1,155 | 499 | 488 | 263 | 209 | 326 | 840 | 3,856 | 1,796 |
| 1956 | 7,633 | 1,096 | 491 | 486 | 299 | 226 | 321 | 812 | 3,902 | 1,832 |
| 1957 | 8,118 | 1,157 | 510 | 540 | 318 | 235 | 347 | 887 | 4,125 | 2,046 |
| 1958 | 8,514 | 1,302 | 562 | 568 | 311 | 233 | 355 | 875 | 4,305 | 2,163 |
| 1959 | 8,907 | 1,475 | 581 | 548 | 280 | 251 | 394 | 915 | 4,463 | 2,112 |
| 1960 [2] | 9,274 | 1,515 | 663 | 556 | 262 | 263 | 427 | 973 | 4,615 | 2,219 |
| 1961 | 9,633 | 1,531 | 788 | 589 | 265 | 274 | 445 | 953 | 4,786 | 2,596 |
| 1962 [2] | 10,231 | 1,587 | 794 | 646 | 288 | 274 | 447 | 1,050 | 5,145 | 2,828 |
| 1963 | 10,792 | 1,842 | 748 | 727 | 290 | 289 | 439 | 1,066 | 5,391 | 2,798 |
| 1964 | 11,169 | 2,005 | 788 | 766 | 270 | 312 | 446 | 1,133 | 5,451 | 2,778 |
| 1965 | 11,527 | 1,956 | 965 | 807 | 280 | 306 | 467 | 1,227 | 5,518 | 2,795 |
| 1966 | 11,792 | 1,868 | 1,106 | 844 | 276 | 312 | 499 | 1,253 | 5,635 | 2,864 |
| 1967 | 11,919 | 1,871 | 1,034 | 934 | 290 | 303 | 517 | 1,281 | 5,692 | 2,941 |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 35,767 | 1,541 | 1,090 | 3,342 | 7,970 | 6,454 | 5,621 | 4,733 | 5,016 | 1,841 |
| 1948 | 35,737 | 1,466 | 1,071 | 3,285 | 7,912 | 6,500 | 5,511 | 4,879 | 5,114 | 1,783 |
| 1949 | 35,883 | 1,426 | 1,032 | 3,249 | 7,955 | 6,486 | 5,524 | 4,957 | 5,253 | 1,814 |
| 1950 | 35,881 | 1,422 | 1,048 | 3,136 | 7,958 | 6,486 | 5,442 | 4,966 | 5,423 | 1,843 |
| 1951 | 35,879 | 1,395 | 989 | 3,058 | 7,842 | 6,513 | 5,379 | 5,033 | 5,671 | 1,891 |
| 1952 | 36,261 | 1,408 | 996 | 3,100 | 7,870 | 6,535 | 5,426 | 5,060 | 5,867 | 1,947 |
| 1953 [2] | 36,924 | 1,462 | 1,022 | 3,050 | 8,084 | 6,627 | 5,434 | 4,962 | 6,262 | 1,969 |
| 1954 | 37,247 | 1,542 | 1,048 | 2,953 | 8,024 | 6,708 | 5,465 | 5,037 | 6,469 | 1,985 |
| 1955 | 37,026 | 1,574 | 1,044 | 2,884 | 7,930 | 6,740 | 5,326 | 4,959 | 6,569 | 2,036 |
| 1956 | 36,769 | 1,508 | 1,043 | 2,847 | 7,814 | 6,648 | 5,285 | 4,874 | 6,751 | 2,114 |
| 1957 | 37,218 | 1,587 | 1,083 | 2,879 | 7,705 | 6,705 | 5,311 | 4,987 | 6,961 | 2,317 |
| 1958 | 37,574 | 1,752 | 1,110 | 2,895 | 7,583 | 6,765 | 5,298 | 5,018 | 7,154 | 2,416 |
| 1959 | 38,053 | 1,891 | 1,180 | 3,014 | 7,488 | 6,831 | 5,291 | 4,993 | 7,365 | 2,348 |
| 1960 [2] | 38,343 | 1,963 | 1,205 | 3,014 | 7,354 | 6,905 | 5,323 | 5,051 | 7,528 | 2,406 |
| 1961 | 38,679 | 1,946 | 1,314 | 3,042 | 7,247 | 6,911 | 5,379 | 5,087 | 7,753 | 2,769 |
| 1962 [2] | 39,308 | 1,998 | 1,359 | 3,125 | 7,194 | 6,935 | 5,374 | 5,067 | 8,256 | 3,033 |
| 1963 | 39,791 | 2,289 | 1,355 | 3,265 | 7,062 | 6,872 | 5,368 | 5,067 | 8,514 | 3,031 |
| 1964 | 40,225 | 2,522 | 1,410 | 3,287 | 7,044 | 6,859 | 5,370 | 5,122 | 8,610 | 3,000 |
| 1965 | 40,531 | 2,494 | 1,605 | 3,376 | 6,906 | 6,685 | 5,505 | 5,151 | 8,808 | 3,031 |
| 1966 | 40,496 | 2,382 | 1,680 | 3,387 | 6,811 | 6,530 | 5,496 | 5,181 | 9,029 | 3,069 |
| 1967 | 40,608 | 2,399 | 1,659 | 3,478 | 6,716 | 6,309 | 5,568 | 5,238 | 9,243 | 3,133 |
| **WHITE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 6,702 | 1,007 | 459 | 418 | 253 | 172 | 258 | 687 | 3,449 | 1,527 |
| 1955 | 6,881 | 1,011 | 442 | 439 | 216 | 170 | 276 | 745 | 3,581 | 1,582 |
| 1956 | 6,870 | 952 | 435 | 430 | 257 | 186 | 271 | 719 | 3,621 | 1,609 |
| 1957 | 7,301 | 1,008 | 442 | 485 | 274 | 198 | 289 | 783 | 3,822 | 1,808 |
| 1958 | 7,667 | 1,139 | 491 | 505 | 270 | 196 | 300 | 774 | 3,990 | 1,909 |
| 1959 | 8,013 | 1,293 | 508 | 495 | 238 | 205 | 328 | 806 | 4,140 | 1,862 |
| 1960 [2] | 8,325 | 1,336 | 580 | 495 | 220 | 212 | 353 | 860 | 4,266 | 1,945 |
| 1961 | 8,624 | 1,340 | 701 | 523 | 218 | 217 | 372 | 831 | 4,422 | 2,269 |
| 1962 [2] | 9,124 | 1,385 | 703 | 580 | 234 | 210 | 371 | 922 | 4,719 | 2,468 |
| 1963 | 9,629 | 1,609 | 656 | 655 | 234 | 230 | 353 | 941 | 4,952 | 2,428 |
| 1964 | 9,976 | 1,746 | 688 | 696 | 223 | 246 | 363 | 992 | 5,021 | 2,403 |
| 1965 | 10,283 | 1,691 | 852 | 738 | 234 | 240 | 387 | 1,073 | 5,070 | 2,409 |
| 1966 | 10,491 | 1,600 | 967 | 774 | 225 | 243 | 404 | 1,112 | 5,164 | 2,462 |
| 1967 | 10,566 | 1,594 | 886 | 842 | 238 | 229 | 429 | 1,126 | 5,224 | 2,530 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 34,186 | 1,332 | 881 | 2,622 | 7,338 | 6,202 | 5,051 | 4,715 | 6,044 | 1,741 |
| 1955 | 33,917 | 1,353 | 890 | 2,534 | 7,260 | 6,211 | 4,912 | 4,615 | 6,142 | 1,773 |
| 1956 | 33,679 | 1,299 | 889 | 2,484 | 7,154 | 6,126 | 4,866 | 4,542 | 6,319 | 1,852 |
| 1957 | 34,077 | 1,363 | 920 | 2,523 | 7,023 | 6,199 | 4,893 | 4,642 | 6,515 | 2,039 |
| 1958 | 34,432 | 1,517 | 938 | 2,543 | 6,909 | 6,281 | 4,897 | 4,653 | 6,691 | 2,127 |
| 1959 | 34,837 | 1,639 | 992 | 2,659 | 6,807 | 6,333 | 4,881 | 4,642 | 6,886 | 2,056 |
| 1960 [2] | 35,044 | 1,702 | 1,030 | 2,645 | 6,656 | 6,387 | 4,903 | 4,688 | 7,030 | 2,095 |
| 1961 | 35,326 | 1,678 | 1,132 | 2,654 | 6,568 | 6,395 | 4,956 | 4,700 | 7,242 | 2,411 |
| 1962 [2] | 35,841 | 1,724 | 1,178 | 2,740 | 6,522 | 6,388 | 4,950 | 4,672 | 7,666 | 2,643 |
| 1963 | 36,246 | 1,990 | 1,166 | 2,877 | 6,404 | 6,309 | 4,940 | 4,673 | 7,887 | 2,622 |
| 1964 | 36,637 | 2,180 | 1,221 | 2,921 | 6,379 | 6,277 | 4,953 | 4,727 | 7,979 | 2,572 |
| 1965 | 36,865 | 2,137 | 1,374 | 3,008 | 6,258 | 6,119 | 5,056 | 4,751 | 8,163 | 2,591 |
| 1966 | 36,801 | 2,026 | 1,442 | 2,997 | 6,172 | 5,976 | 5,049 | 4,774 | 8,365 | 2,614 |
| 1967 | 36,835 | 2,026 | 1,428 | 3,070 | 6,104 | 5,752 | 5,094 | 4,803 | 8,558 | 2,674 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A–7. Persons 16 Years and Over Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67 [1]—Continued

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 729 | 145 | 49 | 40 | 45 | 34 | 57 | 94 | 268 | 211 |
| 1955 | 755 | 145 | 57 | 48 | 47 | 38 | 48 | 95 | 274 | 213 |
| 1956 | 761 | 142 | 56 | 57 | 43 | 39 | 49 | 93 | 281 | 225 |
| 1957 | 818 | 149 | 68 | 55 | 44 | 37 | 58 | 104 | 303 | 238 |
| 1958 | 845 | 162 | 71 | 63 | 42 | 37 | 55 | 101 | 314 | 255 |
| 1959 | 894 | 182 | 73 | 54 | 41 | 45 | 66 | 109 | 324 | 251 |
| 1960 [2] | 950 | 179 | 82 | 61 | 42 | 50 | 75 | 114 | 348 | 273 |
| 1961 | 1,011 | 192 | 88 | 65 | 47 | 58 | 74 | 122 | 335 | 325 |
| 1962 [2] | 1,109 | 202 | 91 | 66 | 54 | 63 | 76 | 129 | 425 | 359 |
| 1963 | 1,163 | 233 | 92 | 72 | 57 | 59 | 87 | 126 | 439 | 370 |
| 1964 | 1,193 | 259 | 100 | 70 | 46 | 65 | 84 | 140 | 430 | 375 |
| 1965 | 1,246 | 265 | 113 | 70 | 47 | 68 | 80 | 155 | 448 | 385 |
| 1966 | 1,301 | 268 | 139 | 70 | 51 | 68 | 95 | 141 | 471 | 420 |
| 1967 | 1,353 | 276 | 148 | 92 | 52 | 74 | 88 | 155 | 469 | 410 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 3,062 | 210 | 167 | 330 | 687 | 507 | 415 | 322 | 425 | 244 |
| 1955 | 3,109 | 221 | 154 | 350 | 670 | 530 | 414 | 343 | 427 | 263 |
| 1956 | 3,089 | 208 | 154 | 363 | 659 | 520 | 419 | 332 | 431 | 262 |
| 1957 | 3,140 | 224 | 163 | 356 | 682 | 506 | 418 | 345 | 446 | 278 |
| 1958 | 3,142 | 235 | 171 | 351 | 674 | 484 | 401 | 364 | 461 | 289 |
| 1959 | 3,216 | 253 | 189 | 355 | 681 | 499 | 410 | 353 | 479 | 292 |
| 1960 [2] | 3,300 | 261 | 175 | 370 | 697 | 519 | 419 | 363 | 497 | 310 |
| 1961 | 3,353 | 268 | 181 | 386 | 679 | 517 | 422 | 388 | 512 | 357 |
| 1962 [2] | 3,468 | 274 | 181 | 385 | 673 | 546 | 424 | 395 | 590 | 389 |
| 1963 | 3,544 | 300 | 188 | 389 | 658 | 562 | 429 | 397 | 625 | 410 |
| 1964 | 3,588 | 342 | 189 | 367 | 664 | 582 | 417 | 395 | 631 | 428 |
| 1965 | 3,666 | 356 | 231 | 369 | 648 | 567 | 449 | 400 | 645 | 440 |
| 1966 | 3,695 | 356 | 238 | 389 | 639 | 554 | 447 | 408 | 664 | 455 |
| 1967 | 3,773 | 373 | 232 | 408 | 613 | 557 | 474 | 435 | 685 | 460 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–8. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67 [1]

[Thousands]

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 40,994 | 992 | 1,226 | 4,238 | 9,858 | 9,242 | 7,644 | 5,485 | 2,309 | 558 |
| 1948 | 41,726 | 997 | 1,348 | 4,350 | 10,039 | 9,363 | 7,742 | 5,586 | 2,303 | 542 |
| 1949 | 40,926 | 911 | 1,213 | 4,196 | 9,870 | 9,308 | 7,661 | 5,438 | 2,329 | 547 |
| 1950 | 41,580 | 909 | 1,277 | 4,255 | 10,060 | 9,445 | 7,790 | 5,508 | 2,336 | 582 |
| 1951 | 41,780 | 979 | 1,177 | 3,780 | 10,134 | 9,607 | 8,012 | 5,711 | 2,382 | 582 |
| 1952 | 41,684 | 985 | 1,121 | 3,182 | 10,352 | 9,753 | 8,144 | 5,804 | 2,343 | 553 |
| 1953 [2] | 42,431 | 976 | 1,159 | 2,902 | 10,500 | 10,229 | 8,374 | 5,808 | 2,483 | 535 |
| 1954 | 41,620 | 881 | 1,104 | 2,724 | 10,254 | 10,092 | 8,330 | 5,830 | 2,414 | 545 |
| 1955 | 42,621 | 936 | 1,159 | 2,974 | 10,453 | 10,267 | 8,553 | 5,857 | 2,424 | 531 |
| 1956 | 43,380 | 1,008 | 1,156 | 3,246 | 10,337 | 10,385 | 8,732 | 6,004 | 2,512 | 619 |
| 1957 | 43,357 | 987 | 1,130 | 3,343 | 10,222 | 10,427 | 8,851 | 6,002 | 2,394 | 633 |
| 1958 | 42,423 | 948 | 1,064 | 3,293 | 9,790 | 10,291 | 8,828 | 5,954 | 2,254 | 619 |
| 1959 | 43,466 | 1,015 | 1,183 | 3,597 | 9,863 | 10,492 | 9,048 | 6,058 | 2,210 | 623 |
| 1960 [2] | 43,904 | 1,089 | 1,271 | 3,754 | 9,759 | 10,551 | 9,182 | 6,106 | 2,191 | 581 |
| 1961 | 43,656 | 989 | 1,325 | 3,798 | 9,591 | 10,505 | 9,194 | 6,156 | 2,098 | 662 |
| 1962 [2] | 44,177 | 990 | 1,372 | 3,898 | 9,475 | 10,711 | 9,333 | 6,260 | 2,137 | 715 |
| 1963 | 44,657 | 1,073 | 1,333 | 4,118 | 9,431 | 10,801 | 9,479 | 6,385 | 2,039 | 673 |
| 1964 | 45,474 | 1,242 | 1,345 | 4,370 | 9,531 | 10,832 | 9,637 | 6,477 | 2,039 | 665 |
| 1965 | 46,340 | 1,284 | 1,634 | 4,583 | 9,611 | 10,837 | 9,792 | 6,542 | 2,057 | 694 |
| 1966 | 46,919 | 1,390 | 1,862 | 4,599 | 9,709 | 10,765 | 9,904 | 6,667 | 2,024 | 720 |
| 1967 | 47,479 | 1,417 | 1,769 | 4,809 | 9,989 | 10,676 | 9,990 | 6,775 | 2,058 | 741 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 16,045 | 581 | 1,110 | 2,591 | 3,606 | 3,577 | 2,659 | 1,484 | 436 | 214 |
| 1948 | 16,618 | 605 | 1,078 | 2,587 | 3,762 | 3,687 | 2,882 | 1,516 | 501 | 230 |
| 1949 | 16,723 | 555 | 1,033 | 2,463 | 3,760 | 3,800 | 2,975 | 1,604 | 535 | 224 |
| 1950 | 17,340 | 524 | 993 | 2,491 | 3,857 | 3,979 | 3,176 | 1,757 | 563 | 244 |
| 1951 | 18,182 | 596 | 1,015 | 2,541 | 4,099 | 4,139 | 3,409 | 1,847 | 535 | 239 |
| 1952 | 18,570 | 641 | 971 | 2,389 | 4,163 | 4,305 | 3,543 | 1,981 | 576 | 228 |
| 1953 [2] | 18,750 | 601 | 983 | 2,324 | 4,019 | 4,545 | 3,595 | 1,998 | 683 | 229 |
| 1954 | 18,490 | 541 | 949 | 2,247 | 3,936 | 4,459 | 3,646 | 2,065 | 646 | 234 |
| 1955 | 19,550 | 564 | 984 | 2,297 | 4,028 | 4,612 | 4,003 | 2,301 | 761 | 240 |
| 1956 | 20,422 | 639 | 1,015 | 2,300 | 4,070 | 4,833 | 4,246 | 2,515 | 802 | 285 |
| 1957 | 20,714 | 626 | 1,037 | 2,295 | 4,031 | 4,921 | 4,469 | 2,550 | 784 | 307 |
| 1958 | 20,613 | 571 | 999 | 2,277 | 3,885 | 4,866 | 4,620 | 2,604 | 791 | 311 |
| 1959 | 21,164 | 655 | 985 | 2,273 | 3,846 | 4,961 | 4,867 | 2,764 | 812 | 328 |
| 1960 [2] | 21,874 | 680 | 1,069 | 2,366 | 3,871 | 5,046 | 5,055 | 2,884 | 882 | 322 |
| 1961 | 22,090 | 632 | 1,161 | 2,433 | 3,838 | 5,047 | 5,124 | 2,964 | 889 | 388 |
| 1962 [2] | 22,525 | 617 | 1,216 | 2,548 | 3,836 | 5,190 | 5,158 | 3,086 | 875 | 429 |
| 1963 | 23,105 | 678 | 1,171 | 2,697 | 3,888 | 5,313 | 5,272 | 3,211 | 877 | 374 |
| 1964 | 23,831 | 771 | 1,158 | 2,934 | 3,918 | 5,335 | 5,457 | 3,326 | 934 | 387 |
| 1965 | 24,748 | 790 | 1,328 | 3,119 | 4,093 | 5,457 | 5,528 | 3,486 | 948 | 397 |
| 1966 | 25,976 | 879 | 1,590 | 3,364 | 4,307 | 5,549 | 5,710 | 3,641 | 936 | 450 |
| 1967 | 26,893 | 917 | 1,580 | 3,690 | 4,587 | 5,608 | 5,799 | 3,762 | 953 | 495 |
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 37,847 | 771 | 953 | 2,394 | 9,287 | 9,175 | 7,614 | 5,412 | 2,241 | 470 |
| 1955 | 38,721 | 821 | 1,004 | 2,607 | 9,461 | 9,351 | 7,792 | 5,431 | 2,254 | 462 |
| 1956 | 39,366 | 890 | 1,002 | 2,850 | 9,330 | 9,449 | 7,950 | 5,559 | 2,336 | 552 |
| 1957 | 39,343 | 874 | 990 | 2,930 | 9,226 | 9,480 | 8,067 | 5,542 | 2,234 | 566 |
| 1958 | 38,592 | 852 | 932 | 2,896 | 8,861 | 9,386 | 8,061 | 5,501 | 2,103 | 558 |
| 1959 | 39,493 | 915 | 1,046 | 3,153 | 8,911 | 9,560 | 8,261 | 5,588 | 2,060 | 554 |
| 1960 [2] | 39,755 | 973 | 1,119 | 3,264 | 8,777 | 9,589 | 8,372 | 5,618 | 2,043 | 510 |
| 1961 | 39,588 | 891 | 1,164 | 3,311 | 8,630 | 9,566 | 8,394 | 5,670 | 1,961 | 597 |
| 1962 [2] | 40,016 | 883 | 1,215 | 3,426 | 8,514 | 9,718 | 8,512 | 5,749 | 1,998 | 656 |
| 1963 | 40,428 | 972 | 1,184 | 3,646 | 8,463 | 9,782 | 8,650 | 5,844 | 1,887 | 609 |
| 1964 | 41,114 | 1,128 | 1,188 | 3,856 | 8,538 | 9,800 | 8,787 | 5,945 | 1,872 | 596 |
| 1965 | 41,844 | 1,159 | 1,453 | 4,025 | 8,598 | 9,795 | 8,924 | 5,998 | 1,892 | 622 |
| 1966 | 42,330 | 1,245 | 1,668 | 4,028 | 8,674 | 9,719 | 9,029 | 6,096 | 1,871 | 653 |
| 1967 | 42,834 | 1,278 | 1,571 | 4,231 | 8,931 | 9,632 | 9,093 | 6,208 | 1,892 | 672 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 16,110 | 486 | 869 | 1,964 | 3,329 | 3,825 | 3,197 | 1,850 | 590 | 192 |
| 1955 | 17,113 | 509 | 892 | 2,030 | 3,394 | 3,976 | 3,530 | 2,079 | 703 | 206 |
| 1956 | 17,899 | 575 | 920 | 2,047 | 3,418 | 4,188 | 3,756 | 2,263 | 732 | 248 |
| 1957 | 18,109 | 568 | 941 | 2,022 | 3,393 | 4,236 | 3,942 | 2,287 | 717 | 272 |
| 1958 | 18,022 | 518 | 915 | 2,012 | 3,267 | 4,185 | 4,052 | 2,348 | 725 | 278 |
| 1959 | 18,512 | 605 | 909 | 1,985 | 3,233 | 4,270 | 4,291 | 2,475 | 745 | 292 |
| 1960 [2] | 19,095 | 625 | 984 | 2,067 | 3,244 | 4,341 | 4,448 | 2,574 | 812 | 281 |
| 1961 | 19,324 | 581 | 1,056 | 2,149 | 3,205 | 4,339 | 4,512 | 2,665 | 817 | 351 |
| 1962 [2] | 19,682 | 564 | 1,112 | 2,250 | 3,189 | 4,455 | 4,554 | 2,762 | 797 | 395 |
| 1963 | 20,194 | 628 | 1,066 | 2,390 | 3,226 | 4,559 | 4,654 | 2,874 | 796 | 344 |
| 1964 | 20,808 | 718 | 1,042 | 2,588 | 3,256 | 4,580 | 4,809 | 2,971 | 845 | 359 |
| 1965 | 21,601 | 733 | 1,217 | 2,727 | 3,394 | 4,678 | 4,880 | 3,118 | 856 | 365 |
| 1966 | 22,689 | 807 | 1,456 | 2,958 | 3,594 | 4,730 | 5,043 | 3,260 | 842 | 424 |
| 1967 | 23,528 | 843 | 1,422 | 3,262 | 3,832 | 4,797 | 5,131 | 3,388 | 854 | 460 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A-8. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67 [1]—Continued

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 3,772 | 110 | 151 | 330 | 967 | 907 | 716 | 418 | 173 | 75 |
| 1955 | 3,903 | 115 | 155 | 367 | 992 | 916 | 761 | 426 | 170 | 69 |
| 1956 | 4,013 | 118 | 154 | 396 | 1,007 | 936 | 782 | 445 | 176 | 67 |
| 1957 | 4,013 | 113 | 140 | 413 | 996 | 947 | 784 | 460 | 160 | 67 |
| 1958 | 3,831 | 97 | 132 | 397 | 929 | 905 | 767 | 454 | 151 | 60 |
| 1959 | 3,972 | 101 | 137 | 445 | 951 | 932 | 787 | 470 | 150 | 69 |
| 1960 [2] | 4,148 | 116 | 152 | 490 | 982 | 963 | 809 | 487 | 148 | 72 |
| 1961 | 4,067 | 98 | 160 | 487 | 961 | 938 | 800 | 485 | 137 | 66 |
| 1962 [2] | 4,160 | 106 | 157 | 472 | 961 | 993 | 821 | 510 | 140 | 60 |
| 1963 | 4,229 | 101 | 149 | 471 | 968 | 1,019 | 828 | 541 | 151 | 64 |
| 1964 | 4,359 | 114 | 158 | 514 | 993 | 1,032 | 850 | 533 | 167 | 70 |
| 1965 | 4,496 | 126 | 181 | 558 | 1,013 | 1,043 | 869 | 543 | 165 | 72 |
| 1966 | 4,588 | 145 | 194 | 571 | 1,035 | 1,044 | 875 | 571 | 153 | 67 |
| 1967 | 4,646 | 139 | 199 | 578 | 1,057 | 1,043 | 898 | 566 | 166 | 69 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1954 | 2,378 | 55 | 80 | 283 | 607 | 634 | 449 | 215 | 56 | 42 |
| 1955 | 2,438 | 55 | 92 | 267 | 634 | 636 | 473 | 222 | 58 | 32 |
| 1956 | 2,521 | 64 | 95 | 253 | 652 | 645 | 490 | 252 | 70 | 37 |
| 1957 | 2,606 | 58 | 96 | 273 | 638 | 685 | 527 | 263 | 67 | 35 |
| 1958 | 2,591 | 53 | 84 | 265 | 618 | 681 | 568 | 257 | 67 | 33 |
| 1959 | 2,652 | 50 | 75 | 288 | 614 | 691 | 577 | 289 | 67 | 37 |
| 1960 [2] | 2,779 | 55 | 105 | 298 | 627 | 705 | 608 | 310 | 70 | 42 |
| 1961 | 2,765 | 51 | 105 | 284 | 633 | 708 | 613 | 300 | 72 | 38 |
| 1962 [2] | 2,844 | 53 | 104 | 298 | 647 | 736 | 604 | 324 | 78 | 34 |
| 1963 | 2,911 | 49 | 104 | 307 | 661 | 754 | 617 | 337 | 81 | 30 |
| 1964 | 3,024 | 53 | 116 | 346 | 662 | 754 | 649 | 355 | 90 | 28 |
| 1965 | 3,147 | 57 | 111 | 392 | 698 | 779 | 649 | 369 | 93 | 32 |
| 1966 | 3,287 | 72 | 133 | 407 | 714 | 818 | 668 | 381 | 94 | 26 |
| 1967 | 3,366 | 74 | 157 | 429 | 755 | 811 | 668 | 374 | 99 | 35 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table A-3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table A-9. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group and Sex: Annual Averages, 1958–67[1]

| Sex and year | Total employed | White-collar workers | | | | | Blue-collar workers | | | | Service workers | | | Farmworkers | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Professional and technical | Managers, officials, and proprietors | Clerical workers | Sales workers | Total | Craftsmen and foremen | Operatives | Nonfarm laborers | Total | Private household workers | Other service workers | Total | Farmers and farm managers | Farm laborers and foremen |
| | Number employed (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Both Sexes** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 63,036 | 26,827 | 6,961 | 6,785 | 9,104 | 3,977 | 23,356 | 8,469 | 11,392 | 3,495 | 7,515 | 1,991 | 5,524 | 5,338 | 3,083 | 2,255 |
| 1959 | 64,630 | 27,574 | 7,143 | 6,935 | 9,297 | 4,199 | 24,009 | 8,561 | 11,813 | 3,635 | 7,720 | 1,966 | 5,754 | 5,327 | 3,019 | 2,309 |
| 1960[2] | 65,777 | 28,516 | 7,474 | 7,067 | 9,759 | 4,216 | 24,067 | 8,560 | 11,950 | 3,557 | 8,031 | 1,980 | 6,051 | 5,163 | 2,781 | 2,383 |
| 1961 | 65,745 | 28,884 | 7,705 | 7,119 | 9,828 | 4,232 | 23,683 | 8,623 | 11,712 | 3,348 | 8,261 | 2,036 | 6,226 | 4,917 | 2,711 | 2,206 |
| 1962[2] | 66,704 | 29,632 | 8,043 | 7,408 | 10,065 | 4,118 | 24,048 | 8,678 | 11,979 | 3,391 | 8,383 | 2,023 | 6,360 | 4,639 | 2,595 | 2,045 |
| 1963 | 67,763 | 29,943 | 8,263 | 7,293 | 10,237 | 4,150 | 24,778 | 8,925 | 12,456 | 3,397 | 8,670 | 2,029 | 6,641 | 4,372 | 2,396 | 1,976 |
| 1964 | 69,306 | 30,866 | 8,550 | 7,451 | 10,629 | 4,237 | 25,331 | 8,986 | 12,866 | 3,479 | 8,890 | 2,040 | 6,851 | 4,219 | 2,320 | 1,899 |
| 1965 | 71,088 | 31,849 | 8,883 | 7,340 | 11,129 | 4,497 | 26,246 | 9,222 | 13,336 | 3,688 | 8,936 | 1,957 | 6,980 | 4,057 | 2,244 | 1,814 |
| 1966 | 72,896 | 33,065 | 9,310 | 7,403 | 11,812 | 4,540 | 26,952 | 9,591 | 13,829 | 3,532 | 9,212 | 1,903 | 7,309 | 3,667 | 2,091 | 1,576 |
| 1967 | 74,372 | 34,232 | 9,879 | 7,495 | 12,333 | 4,525 | 27,261 | 9,845 | 13,884 | 3,533 | 9,325 | 1,769 | 7,556 | 3,554 | 1,970 | 1,584 |
| **Male** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 42,423 | 15,468 | 4,420 | 5,751 | 2,898 | 2,399 | 19,849 | 8,244 | 8,207 | 3,398 | 2,720 | 39 | 2,681 | 4,384 | 2,960 | 1,424 |
| 1959 | 43,466 | 15,953 | 4,583 | 5,858 | 2,976 | 2,536 | 20,444 | 8,349 | 8,558 | 3,537 | 2,739 | 35 | 2,704 | 4,328 | 2,899 | 1,429 |
| 1960[2] | 43,904 | 16,409 | 4,768 | 5,967 | 3,139 | 2,535 | 20,438 | 8,338 | 8,622 | 3,478 | 2,851 | 33 | 2,818 | 4,206 | 2,670 | 1,536 |
| 1961 | 43,656 | 16,604 | 4,955 | 6,003 | 3,100 | 2,546 | 20,075 | 8,407 | 8,396 | 3,272 | 2,912 | 47 | 2,865 | 4,064 | 2,581 | 1,483 |
| 1962[2] | 44,177 | 17,005 | 5,175 | 6,276 | 3,119 | 2,435 | 20,367 | 8,455 | 8,608 | 3,304 | 2,980 | 46 | 2,934 | 3,823 | 2,463 | 1,360 |
| 1963 | 44,657 | 17,053 | 5,312 | 6,180 | 3,108 | 2,453 | 20,956 | 8,683 | 8,966 | 3,307 | 3,095 | 44 | 3,051 | 3,555 | 2,265 | 1,290 |
| 1964 | 45,474 | 17,482 | 5,438 | 6,342 | 3,196 | 2,506 | 21,353 | 8,736 | 9,225 | 3,392 | 3,199 | 46 | 3,153 | 3,439 | 2,187 | 1,252 |
| 1965 | 46,340 | 17,742 | 5,602 | 6,229 | 3,271 | 2,640 | 22,103 | 8,951 | 9,573 | 3,579 | 3,195 | 40 | 3,155 | 3,298 | 2,112 | 1,186 |
| 1966 | 46,919 | 18,096 | 5,840 | 6,236 | 3,349 | 2,671 | 22,514 | 9,336 | 9,754 | 3,424 | 3,319 | 43 | 3,276 | 2,990 | 1,968 | 1,022 |
| 1967 | 47,479 | 18,527 | 6,183 | 6,318 | 3,406 | 2,622 | 22,683 | 9,560 | 9,706 | 3,417 | 3,334 | 33 | 3,301 | 2,936 | 1,872 | 1,065 |
| **Female** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 20,613 | 11,360 | 2,541 | 1,034 | 6,206 | 1,579 | 3,506 | 225 | 3,184 | 97 | 4,793 | 1,952 | 2,841 | 954 | 123 | 831 |
| 1959 | 21,164 | 11,620 | 2,560 | 1,077 | 6,321 | 1,662 | 3,565 | 212 | 3,255 | 98 | 4,981 | 1,931 | 3,050 | 999 | 119 | 880 |
| 1960[2] | 21,874 | 12,106 | 2,706 | 1,099 | 6,620 | 1,681 | 3,629 | 222 | 3,328 | 79 | 5,180 | 1,947 | 3,233 | 958 | 111 | 847 |
| 1961 | 22,090 | 12,280 | 2,750 | 1,116 | 6,728 | 1,686 | 3,608 | 216 | 3,316 | 76 | 5,350 | 1,989 | 3,361 | 853 | 130 | 723 |
| 1962[2] | 22,525 | 12,625 | 2,865 | 1,132 | 6,946 | 1,682 | 3,680 | 223 | 3,371 | 86 | 5,403 | 1,977 | 3,426 | 816 | 132 | 684 |
| 1963 | 23,105 | 12,889 | 2,950 | 1,113 | 7,129 | 1,697 | 3,822 | 241 | 3,491 | 90 | 5,575 | 1,985 | 3,590 | 817 | 131 | 686 |
| 1964 | 23,831 | 13,383 | 3,110 | 1,109 | 7,433 | 1,731 | 3,980 | 250 | 3,642 | 88 | 5,693 | 1,994 | 3,699 | 777 | 132 | 645 |
| 1965 | 24,748 | 14,105 | 3,280 | 1,110 | 7,858 | 1,857 | 4,143 | 270 | 3,765 | 108 | 5,742 | 1,917 | 3,825 | 759 | 132 | 627 |
| 1966 | 25,976 | 14,971 | 3,472 | 1,166 | 8,463 | 1,870 | 4,438 | 257 | 4,074 | 107 | 5,893 | 1,861 | 4,032 | 678 | 124 | 554 |
| 1967 | 26,893 | 15,705 | 3,697 | 1,177 | 8,928 | 1,904 | 4,580 | 286 | 4,178 | 117 | 5,992 | 1,737 | 4,255 | 618 | 98 | 520 |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Both Sexes** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 42.6 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 14.4 | 6.3 | 37.1 | 13.4 | 18.1 | 5.5 | 11.9 | 3.2 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 4.9 | 3.6 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 42.7 | 11.1 | 10.7 | 14.4 | 6.5 | 37.1 | 13.2 | 18.3 | 5.6 | 11.9 | 3.0 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 4.7 | 3.6 |
| 1960[2] | 100.0 | 43.4 | 11.4 | 10.7 | 14.8 | 6.4 | 36.6 | 13.0 | 18.2 | 5.4 | 12.2 | 3.0 | 9.2 | 7.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 43.9 | 11.7 | 10.8 | 14.9 | 6.4 | 36.0 | 13.1 | 17.8 | 5.1 | 12.6 | 3.1 | 9.5 | 7.5 | 4.1 | 3.4 |
| 1962[2] | 100.0 | 44.4 | 12.1 | 11.1 | 15.1 | 6.2 | 36.1 | 13.0 | 18.0 | 5.1 | 12.6 | 3.0 | 9.5 | 7.0 | 3.9 | 3.1 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 44.2 | 12.2 | 10.8 | 15.1 | 6.1 | 36.6 | 13.2 | 18.4 | 5.0 | 12.8 | 3.0 | 9.8 | 6.5 | 3.5 | 2.9 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 44.5 | 12.3 | 10.8 | 15.3 | 6.1 | 36.5 | 13.0 | 18.6 | 5.0 | 12.8 | 2.9 | 9.9 | 6.1 | 3.3 | 2.7 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 44.8 | 12.5 | 10.3 | 15.7 | 6.3 | 36.9 | 13.0 | 18.8 | 5.2 | 12.6 | 2.8 | 9.8 | 5.7 | 3.2 | 2.6 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 45.4 | 12.8 | 10.2 | 16.2 | 6.2 | 37.0 | 13.2 | 19.0 | 4.8 | 12.6 | 2.6 | 10.0 | 5.0 | 2.9 | 2.2 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 46.0 | 13.3 | 10.1 | 16.6 | 6.1 | 36.7 | 13.2 | 18.7 | 4.8 | 12.5 | 2.4 | 10.2 | 4.8 | 2.6 | 2.1 |
| **Male** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 36.5 | 10.4 | 13.6 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 46.8 | 19.4 | 19.3 | 8.0 | 6.4 | .1 | 6.3 | 10.3 | 7.0 | 3.4 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 36.7 | 10.5 | 13.5 | 6.8 | 5.8 | 47.0 | 19.2 | 19.7 | 8.1 | 6.3 | .1 | 6.2 | 10.0 | 6.7 | 3.3 |
| 1960[2] | 100.0 | 37.4 | 10.9 | 13.6 | 7.1 | 5.8 | 46.6 | 19.0 | 19.6 | 7.9 | 6.5 | .1 | 6.4 | 9.6 | 6.1 | 3.5 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 38.0 | 11.4 | 13.8 | 7.1 | 5.8 | 46.0 | 19.3 | 19.2 | 7.5 | 6.7 | .1 | 6.6 | 9.3 | 5.9 | 3.4 |
| 1962[2] | 100.0 | 38.5 | 11.7 | 14.2 | 7.1 | 5.5 | 46.1 | 19.1 | 19.5 | 7.5 | 6.7 | .1 | 6.6 | 8.7 | 5.6 | 3.1 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 38.2 | 11.9 | 13.8 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 46.9 | 19.4 | 20.1 | 7.4 | 6.9 | .1 | 6.8 | 8.0 | 5.1 | 2.9 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 38.4 | 12.0 | 13.9 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 47.0 | 19.2 | 20.3 | 7.5 | 7.0 | .1 | 6.9 | 7.6 | 4.8 | 2.8 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 38.3 | 12.1 | 13.4 | 7.1 | 5.7 | 47.7 | 19.3 | 20.7 | 7.7 | 6.9 | .1 | 6.8 | 7.1 | 4.6 | 2.6 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 38.6 | 12.4 | 13.3 | 7.1 | 5.7 | 48.0 | 19.9 | 20.8 | 7.3 | 7.1 | .1 | 7.0 | 6.4 | 4.2 | 2.2 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 39.0 | 13.0 | 13.3 | 7.2 | 5.5 | 47.8 | 20.1 | 20.4 | 7.2 | 7.0 | .1 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 3.9 | 2.2 |
| **Female** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 55.1 | 12.3 | 5.0 | 30.1 | 7.7 | 17.0 | 1.1 | 15.4 | .5 | 23.3 | 9.5 | 13.8 | 4.6 | .6 | 4.0 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 54.9 | 12.1 | 5.1 | 29.9 | 7.9 | 16.8 | 1.0 | 15.4 | .5 | 23.5 | 9.1 | 14.4 | 4.7 | .6 | 4.2 |
| 1960[2] | 100.0 | 55.3 | 12.4 | 5.0 | 30.3 | 7.7 | 16.6 | 1.0 | 15.2 | .4 | 23.7 | 8.9 | 14.8 | 4.4 | .5 | 3.9 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 55.6 | 12.4 | 5.1 | 30.5 | 7.6 | 16.3 | 1.0 | 15.0 | .3 | 24.2 | 9.0 | 15.2 | 3.9 | .6 | 3.3 |
| 1962[2] | 100.0 | 56.0 | 12.7 | 5.0 | 30.8 | 7.5 | 16.3 | 1.0 | 15.0 | .4 | 24.0 | 8.8 | 15.2 | 3.6 | .6 | 3.0 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 55.8 | 12.8 | 4.8 | 30.9 | 7.3 | 16.5 | 1.0 | 15.1 | .4 | 24.1 | 8.6 | 15.5 | 3.5 | .6 | 3.0 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 56.2 | 13.0 | 4.7 | 31.2 | 7.3 | 16.7 | 1.0 | 15.3 | .4 | 23.9 | 8.4 | 15.5 | 3.3 | .6 | 2.7 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 57.0 | 13.3 | 4.5 | 31.8 | 7.5 | 16.7 | 1.1 | 15.2 | .4 | 23.2 | 7.7 | 15.5 | 3.1 | .5 | 2.5 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 57.6 | 13.4 | 4.5 | 32.6 | 7.2 | 17.1 | 1.0 | 15.7 | .4 | 22.7 | 7.2 | 15.5 | 2.6 | .5 | 2.1 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 58.4 | 13.7 | 4.4 | 33.2 | 7.1 | 17.0 | 1.1 | 15.5 | .4 | 22.3 | 6.5 | 15.8 | 2.3 | .4 | 1.9 |

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[1] Data for persons 16 years and over are not available prior to 1958. Data for persons 14 years and over beginning with 1947 were shown in previous issues of the *Manpower Report*.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table A–10. Employed Persons by Type of Industry and Class of Worker: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1947–66, 16 years and over for 1967]

| Year | Total employed | Agriculture | | | | Nonagricultural industries | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Wage and salary workers | Self-employed workers | Unpaid family workers | Total | Wage and salary workers | | | | Self-employed workers | Unpaid family workers |
| | | | | | | | Total | Private household[1] | Government | Other | | |
| | Number employed (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 58,027 | 8,266 | 1,677 | 4,973 | 1,616 | 49,761 | 43,290 | 1,714 | 5,041 | 36,534 | 6,045 | 427 |
| 1948 | 59,378 | 7,973 | 1,746 | 4,671 | 1,556 | 51,405 | 44,866 | 1,731 | 5,288 | 37,847 | 6,139 | 401 |
| 1949 | 58,710 | 8,026 | 1,845 | 4,618 | 1,563 | 50,684 | 44,080 | 1,772 | 5,440 | 36,869 | 6,208 | 396 |
| 1950 | 59,957 | 7,507 | 1,733 | 4,346 | 1,427 | 52,450 | 45,977 | 1,995 | 5,817 | 38,165 | 6,069 | 404 |
| 1951 | 61,005 | 7,054 | 1,647 | 4,022 | 1,386 | 53,951 | 47,682 | 2,055 | 6,089 | 39,538 | 5,869 | 400 |
| 1952 | 61,293 | 6,805 | 1,526 | 3,936 | 1,342 | 54,488 | 48,387 | 1,922 | 6,493 | 39,971 | 5,670 | 431 |
| 1953 [2] | 62,213 | 6,562 | 1,467 | 3,821 | 1,273 | 55,651 | 49,434 | 1,985 | 6,572 | 40,877 | 5,794 | 423 |
| 1954 | 61,238 | 6,504 | 1,452 | 3,821 | 1,230 | 54,733 | 48,409 | 1,919 | 6,643 | 39,847 | 5,880 | 445 |
| 1955 | 63,193 | 6,730 | 1,700 | 3,731 | 1,299 | 56,464 | 50,054 | 2,216 | 6,838 | 40,999 | 5,886 | 524 |
| 1956 [3] | 64,979 | 6,585 | 1,692 | 3,570 | 1,323 | 58,394 | 51,877 | 2,359 | 6,934 | 42,584 | 5,936 | 581 |
| 1957 | 65,011 | 6,222 | 1,687 | 3,304 | 1,231 | 58,789 | 52,073 | 2,328 | 7,185 | 42,559 | 6,089 | 626 |
| 1958 | 63,966 | 5,844 | 1,671 | 3,087 | 1,086 | 58,122 | 51,332 | 2,456 | 7,481 | 41,394 | 6,185 | 605 |
| 1959 | 65,581 | 5,836 | 1,689 | 3,027 | 1,121 | 59,745 | 52,850 | 2,520 | 7,695 | 42,636 | 6,298 | 597 |
| 1960 [2] | 66,681 | 5,723 | 1,866 | 2,802 | 1,054 | 60,958 | 53,976 | 2,489 | 7,943 | 43,544 | 6,367 | 615 |
| 1961 | 66,796 | 5,463 | 1,733 | 2,744 | 985 | 61,333 | 54,284 | 2,594 | 8,186 | 43,505 | 6,388 | 662 |
| 1962 [2] | 67,846 | 5,190 | 1,666 | 2,619 | 905 | 62,657 | 55,762 | 2,626 | 8,703 | 44,433 | 6,271 | 623 |
| 1963 | 68,809 | 4,946 | 1,676 | 2,437 | 834 | 63,863 | 57,081 | 2,583 | 9,093 | 45,405 | 6,195 | 587 |
| 1964 | 70,357 | 4,761 | 1,582 | 2,366 | 813 | 65,596 | 58,736 | 2,621 | 9,363 | 46,752 | 6,266 | 594 |
| 1965 | 72,179 | 4,585 | 1,492 | 2,307 | 786 | 67,594 | 60,765 | 2,548 | 9,623 | 48,594 | 6,213 | 616 |
| 1966 | 74,065 | 4,206 | 1,369 | 2,147 | 690 | 69,859 | 63,182 | 2,496 | 10,346 | 50,340 | 6,101 | 576 |
| 1967 [4] | 74,372 | 3,844 | 1,301 | 1,996 | 547 | 70,527 | 64,848 | 1,966 | 11,146 | 51,737 | 5,174 | 506 |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 100.0 | 14.2 | 2.9 | 8.6 | 2.8 | 85.8 | 74.6 | 3.0 | 8.7 | 63.0 | 10.4 | .7 |
| 1948 | 100.0 | 13.4 | 2.9 | 7.9 | 2.6 | 86.6 | 75.6 | 2.9 | 8.9 | 63.7 | 10.3 | .7 |
| 1949 | 100.0 | 13.7 | 3.1 | 7.9 | 2.7 | 86.3 | 75.1 | 3.0 | 9.3 | 62.8 | 10.6 | .7 |
| 1950 | 100.0 | 12.5 | 2.9 | 7.2 | 2.4 | 87.5 | 76.7 | 3.3 | 9.7 | 63.7 | 10.1 | .7 |
| 1951 | 100.0 | 11.6 | 2.7 | 6.6 | 2.3 | 88.4 | 78.2 | 3.4 | 10.0 | 64.8 | 9.6 | .7 |
| 1952 | 100.0 | 11.1 | 2.5 | 6.4 | 2.2 | 88.9 | 78.9 | 3.1 | 10.6 | 65.2 | 9.3 | .7 |
| 1953 [2] | 100.0 | 10.5 | 2.4 | 6.1 | 2.0 | 89.5 | 79.5 | 3.2 | 10.6 | 65.7 | 9.3 | .7 |
| 1954 | 100.0 | 10.6 | 2.4 | 6.2 | 2.0 | 89.4 | 79.1 | 3.1 | 10.8 | 65.1 | 9.6 | .7 |
| 1955 | 100.0 | 10.6 | 2.7 | 5.9 | 2.1 | 89.4 | 79.2 | 3.5 | 10.8 | 64.9 | 9.3 | .8 |
| 1956 [3] | 100.0 | 10.1 | 2.6 | 5.5 | 2.0 | 89.9 | 79.8 | 3.6 | 10.7 | 65.5 | 9.1 | .9 |
| 1957 | 100.0 | 9.6 | 2.6 | 5.1 | 1.9 | 90.4 | 80.1 | 3.6 | 11.1 | 65.5 | 9.4 | 1.0 |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 9.1 | 2.6 | 4.8 | 1.7 | 90.9 | 80.2 | 3.8 | 11.7 | 64.7 | 9.7 | .9 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 8.9 | 2.6 | 4.6 | 1.7 | 91.1 | 80.6 | 3.8 | 11.7 | 65.0 | 9.6 | .9 |
| 1960 [2] | 100.0 | 8.6 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 1.6 | 91.4 | 80.9 | 3.7 | 11.9 | 65.3 | 9.5 | .9 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 8.2 | 2.6 | 4.1 | 1.5 | 91.8 | 81.3 | 3.9 | 12.3 | 65.1 | 9.6 | 1.0 |
| 1962 [2] | 100.0 | 7.6 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 1.3 | 92.4 | 82.2 | 3.9 | 12.8 | 65.5 | 9.2 | .9 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 7.2 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 1.2 | 92.8 | 83.0 | 3.8 | 13.2 | 66.0 | 9.0 | .9 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 6.8 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 1.2 | 93.2 | 83.5 | 3.7 | 13.3 | 66.4 | 8.9 | .8 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 6.4 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 1.1 | 93.6 | 84.2 | 3.5 | 13.3 | 67.3 | 8.6 | .9 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 5.7 | 1.8 | 2.9 | .9 | 94.3 | 85.3 | 3.4 | 14.0 | 68.0 | 8.2 | .8 |
| 1967 [4] | 100.0 | 5.2 | 1.7 | 2.7 | .7 | 94.8 | 87.2 | 2.6 | 15.0 | 69.6 | 7.0 | .7 |

[1] Differs from the occupation group of private household workers. These figures relate to wage and salary workers in private households regardless of type of occupation, while the occupational data relate to persons whose occupational category is service worker in private households, regardless of class of worker status.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data for employed persons for the period 1947–56 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

[4] Data refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967. Overlap data for 1966 for persons 16 years and over are not available.

## Table A–11. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Color: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Year | Number unemployed (thousands) | | | | | | | | | Unemployment rate | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female | White | | | Nonwhite | | | Total | Male | Female | White | | | Nonwhite | | |
| | | | | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | | | | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female |
| 1947 | 2,311 | 1,692 | 619 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 3.9 | 4.0 | 3.7 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) |
| 1948 | 2,276 | 1,559 | 717 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 3.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 6.1 |
| 1949 | 3,637 | 2,572 | 1,065 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 5.9 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 8.9 | 9.6 | 7.9 |
| 1950 | 3,288 | 2,239 | 1,049 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 5.3 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 9.0 | 9.4 | 8.4 |
| 1951 | 2,055 | 1,221 | 834 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 3.3 | 2.8 | 4.4 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 4.9 | 6.1 |
| 1952 | 1,883 | 1,185 | 698 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 3.0 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.7 |
| 1953 [2] | 1,834 | 1,202 | 632 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | 2.9 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 4.1 |
| 1954 | 3,532 | 2,344 | 1,188 | 2,860 | 1,913 | 947 | 674 | 431 | 243 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 6.0 | 5.0 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 9.9 | 10.3 | 9.3 |
| 1955 | 2,852 | 1,854 | 998 | 2,248 | 1,475 | 773 | 601 | 376 | 225 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 8.7 | 8.8 | 8.4 |
| 1956 | 2,750 | 1,711 | 1,039 | 2,162 | 1,368 | 794 | 592 | 345 | 247 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 8.3 | 7.9 | 8.9 |
| 1957 | 2,859 | 1,841 | 1,018 | 2,289 | 1,478 | 811 | 569 | 363 | 206 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 7.9 | 8.3 | 7.3 |
| 1958 | 4,602 | 3,098 | 1,504 | 3,679 | 2,488 | 1,191 | 925 | 611 | 314 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 12.6 | 13.8 | 10.8 |
| 1959 | 3,740 | 2,420 | 1,320 | 2,947 | 1,904 | 1,044 | 794 | 518 | 276 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 5.9 | 4.8 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 10.7 | 11.5 | 9.4 |
| 1960 [2] | 3,852 | 2,486 | 1,366 | 3,063 | 1,987 | 1,076 | 787 | 497 | 290 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.9 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 10.2 | 10.7 | 9.4 |
| 1961 | 4,714 | 2,997 | 1,717 | 3,742 | 2,398 | 1,344 | 970 | 599 | 371 | 6.7 | 6.4 | 7.2 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 6.5 | 12.4 | 12.8 | 11.8 |
| 1962 [2] | 3,911 | 2,423 | 1,488 | 3,052 | 1,915 | 1,137 | 859 | 508 | 351 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 5.5 | 10.9 | 10.9 | 11.0 |
| 1963 | 4,070 | 2,472 | 1,598 | 3,208 | 1,976 | 1,232 | 864 | 496 | 368 | 5.7 | 5.2 | 6.5 | 5.0 | 4.7 | 5.8 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 11.2 |
| 1964 | 3,786 | 2,205 | 1,581 | 2,999 | 1,779 | 1,220 | 786 | 426 | 360 | 5.2 | 4.6 | 6.2 | 4.6 | 4.1 | 5.5 | 9.6 | 8.9 | 10.6 |
| 1965 | 3,366 | 1,914 | 1,452 | 2,691 | 1,556 | 1,135 | 676 | 359 | 317 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 5.5 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 5.0 | 8.1 | 7.4 | 9.2 |
| 1966 | 2,875 | 1,551 | 1,324 | 2,253 | 1,240 | 1,013 | 621 | 311 | 310 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 4.8 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 6.3 | 8.6 |
| 1967 | 2,975 | 1,506 | 1,468 | 2,338 | 1,208 | 1,130 | 638 | 299 | 338 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 5.2 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 4.6 | 7.4 | 6.0 | 9.1 |

[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 (see footnote 1, table A–3), and rates by color are not available for 1947.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

# Table A-12. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Sex and year | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Number unemployed (thousands) | | | | | |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 1,692 | 114 | 156 | 392 | 349 | 250 | 203 | 162 | 67 | 28 |
| 1948 | 1,559 | 112 | 143 | 324 | 289 | 233 | 201 | 178 | 81 | 31 |
| 1949 | 2,572 | 145 | 207 | 485 | 539 | 414 | 347 | 310 | 125 | 30 |
| 1950 | 2,239 | 139 | 179 | 377 | 467 | 348 | 327 | 286 | 117 | 41 |
| 1951 | 1,221 | 102 | 89 | 155 | 241 | 192 | 193 | 162 | 87 | 29 |
| 1952 | 1,185 | 116 | 89 | 155 | 233 | 192 | 182 | 145 | 73 | 32 |
| 1953 [1] | 1,202 | 94 | 90 | 152 | 236 | 208 | 196 | 167 | 60 | 26 |
| 1954 | 2,344 | 142 | 168 | 327 | 517 | 431 | 372 | 275 | 112 | 28 |
| 1955 | 1,854 | 134 | 140 | 248 | 353 | 328 | 285 | 265 | 102 | 35 |
| 1956 | 1,711 | 134 | 135 | 240 | 348 | 278 | 270 | 216 | 90 | 46 |
| 1957 | 1,841 | 140 | 159 | 283 | 349 | 304 | 302 | 220 | 83 | 52 |
| 1958 | 3,098 | 185 | 231 | 478 | 685 | 552 | 492 | 349 | 124 | 57 |
| 1959 | 2,420 | 191 | 207 | 343 | 483 | 407 | 390 | 287 | 112 | 53 |
| 1960 [1] | 2,486 | 200 | 225 | 369 | 492 | 415 | 392 | 294 | 96 | 55 |
| 1961 | 2,997 | 221 | 258 | 457 | 585 | 507 | 473 | 374 | 122 | 63 |
| 1962 [1] | 2,423 | 187 | 220 | 381 | 446 | 405 | 381 | 300 | 103 | 65 |
| 1963 | 2,472 | 248 | 252 | 396 | 444 | 386 | 358 | 289 | 97 | 65 |
| 1964 | 2,205 | 257 | 230 | 384 | 345 | 323 | 319 | 262 | 85 | 66 |
| 1965 | 1,914 | 247 | 232 | 311 | 293 | 284 | 253 | 221 | 75 | 66 |
| 1966 | 1,551 | 220 | 212 | 221 | 238 | 219 | 197 | 180 | 65 | 71 |
| 1967 | 1,508 | 241 | 207 | 235 | 219 | 185 | 199 | 164 | 60 | 87 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 619 | 63 | 81 | 124 | 134 | 99 | 72 | 39 | 10 | 18 |
| 1948 | 717 | 66 | 86 | 132 | 169 | 113 | 90 | 49 | 12 | 18 |
| 1949 | 1,065 | 93 | 130 | 195 | 237 | 189 | 124 | 74 | 21 | 18 |
| 1950 | 1,049 | 87 | 108 | 184 | 235 | 182 | 151 | 82 | 20 | 24 |
| 1951 | 834 | 66 | 79 | 118 | 194 | 162 | 125 | 76 | 16 | 17 |
| 1952 | 698 | 64 | 76 | 113 | 156 | 133 | 92 | 50 | 13 | 17 |
| 1953 [1] | 632 | 56 | 67 | 104 | 143 | 117 | 84 | 51 | 10 | 10 |
| 1954 | 1,188 | 79 | 112 | 177 | 276 | 249 | 176 | 99 | 20 | 19 |
| 1955 | 998 | 77 | 99 | 148 | 224 | 193 | 151 | 90 | 18 | 18 |
| 1956 | 1,039 | 97 | 112 | 155 | 206 | 198 | 159 | 95 | 19 | 28 |
| 1957 | 1,018 | 90 | 107 | 147 | 224 | 195 | 146 | 80 | 28 | 25 |
| 1958 | 1,504 | 114 | 148 | 223 | 308 | 319 | 239 | 122 | 31 | 22 |
| 1959 | 1,320 | 110 | 146 | 200 | 242 | 266 | 214 | 119 | 23 | 20 |
| 1960 [1] | 1,366 | 124 | 162 | 214 | 260 | 256 | 222 | 101 | 25 | 24 |
| 1961 | 1,717 | 142 | 207 | 265 | 304 | 342 | 278 | 141 | 36 | 30 |
| 1962 [1] | 1,488 | 124 | 189 | 255 | 267 | 283 | 223 | 111 | 37 | 31 |
| 1963 | 1,598 | 172 | 211 | 262 | 286 | 287 | 231 | 120 | 29 | 31 |
| 1964 | 1,581 | 179 | 207 | 276 | 262 | 281 | 223 | 122 | 33 | 24 |
| 1965 | 1,452 | 164 | 231 | 246 | 236 | 263 | 183 | 101 | 27 | 24 |
| 1966 | 1,324 | 175 | 229 | 224 | 201 | 207 | 173 | 86 | 27 | 30 |
| 1967 | 1,468 | 160 | 231 | 277 | 261 | 237 | 185 | 93 | 26 | 38 |
| | | | | | Unemployment rate | | | | | |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 4.0 | 10.3 | 11.3 | 8.5 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 4.8 |
| 1948 | 3.6 | 10.1 | 9.6 | 6.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 5.4 |
| 1949 | 5.9 | 13.7 | 14.6 | 10.4 | 5.2 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 5.2 |
| 1950 | 5.1 | 13.3 | 12.3 | 8.1 | 4.4 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 6.6 |
| 1951 | 2.8 | 9.4 | 7.0 | 3.9 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 4.7 |
| 1952 | 2.8 | 10.5 | 7.4 | 4.6 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 5.5 |
| 1953 [1] | 2.8 | 8.8 | 7.2 | 5.0 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 4.6 |
| 1954 | 5.3 | 13.9 | 13.2 | 10.7 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.9 |
| 1955 | 4.2 | 12.5 | 10.8 | 7.7 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 6.2 |
| 1956 | 3.8 | 11.7 | 10.4 | 6.9 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 6.9 |
| 1957 | 4.1 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 7.8 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 7.6 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 16.3 | 17.8 | 12.7 | 6.5 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 8.4 |
| 1959 | 5.3 | 15.8 | 14.9 | 8.7 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 7.8 |
| 1960 [1] | 5.4 | 15.5 | 15.0 | 8.9 | 4.8 | 3.8 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 4.2 | 8.6 |
| 1961 | 6.4 | 18.3 | 16.3 | 10.7 | 5.7 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 8.7 |
| 1962 [1] | 5.2 | 15.9 | 13.8 | 8.9 | 4.5 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 8.3 |
| 1963 | 5.2 | 18.8 | 15.9 | 8.8 | 4.5 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 8.8 |
| 1964 | 4.6 | 17.1 | 14.6 | 8.1 | 3.5 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 9.0 |
| 1965 | 4.0 | 16.1 | 12.4 | 6.3 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 8.6 |
| 1966 | 3.2 | 13.7 | 10.2 | 4.6 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 8.9 |
| 1967 | 3.1 | 14.5 | 10.5 | 4.7 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 10.5 |

Footnote at end of table.

## Table A–12. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–67—Continued

| Sex and year | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 25 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Unemployment rate—Continued | | | | | | | | | |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 3.7 | 9.8 | 6.8 | 4.6 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 7.8 |
| 1948 | 4.1 | 9.8 | 7.4 | 4.9 | 4.3 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.3 | 7.3 |
| 1949 | 6.0 | 14.4 | 11.2 | 7.3 | 5.9 | 4.7 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 3.8 | 7.4 |
| 1950 | 5.7 | 14.2 | 9.8 | 6.9 | 5.7 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 3.4 | 9.0 |
| 1951 | 4.4 | 10.0 | 7.2 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 3.8 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 6.6 |
| 1952 | 3.6 | 9.1 | 7.3 | 4.5 | 3.6 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 7.0 |
| 1953 [1] | 3.3 | 8.5 | 6.4 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 1.4 | 4.2 |
| 1954 | 6.0 | 12.7 | 10.5 | 7.3 | 6.6 | 5.3 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 3.0 | 7.5 |
| 1955 | 4.9 | 12.0 | 9.1 | 6.1 | 5.3 | 4.0 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 2.3 | 7.0 |
| 1956 | 4.8 | 13.2 | 9.9 | 6.3 | 4.8 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 2.3 | 8.9 |
| 1957 | 4.7 | 12.6 | 9.4 | 6.0 | 5.3 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 7.5 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 16.6 | 12.9 | 8.9 | 7.3 | 6.2 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 3.8 | 6.6 |
| 1959 | 5.9 | 14.4 | 12.9 | 8.1 | 5.9 | 5.1 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 2.8 | 5.7 |
| 1960 [1] | 5.9 | 15.4 | 13.0 | 8.3 | 6.3 | 4.8 | 4.2 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 6.9 |
| 1961 | 7.2 | 18.3 | 15.1 | 9.8 | 7.3 | 6.3 | 5.1 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 7.2 |
| 1962 [1] | 6.2 | 16.8 | 13.5 | 9.1 | 6.5 | 5.2 | 4.1 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 6.7 |
| 1963 | 6.5 | 20.3 | 15.2 | 8.9 | 6.9 | 5.1 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 7.6 |
| 1964 | 6.2 | 18.8 | 15.1 | 8.6 | 6.3 | 5.0 | 3.9 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 5.9 |
| 1965 | 5.5 | 17.2 | 14.8 | 7.3 | 5.5 | 4.6 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 5.7 |
| 1966 | 4.8 | 16.6 | 12.6 | 6.3 | 4.5 | 3.6 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 6.3 |
| 1967 | 5.2 | 14.8 | 12.7 | 7.0 | 5.4 | 4.0 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 7.2 |

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–13. Unemployment Rates of Persons 16 Years and Over, by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–67

| Item | Total, 16 years and over | 16 and 17 years | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 14 and 15 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **WHITE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 3.4 | 10.2 | 9.4 | 6.4 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 5.9 |
| 1949 | 5.6 | 13.4 | 14.2 | 9.8 | 4.9 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 5.1 |
| 1950 | 4.7 | 13.4 | 11.7 | 7.7 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 5.8 |
| 1951 | 2.6 | 9.5 | 6.7 | 3.6 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 4.7 |
| 1952 | 2.5 | 10.9 | 7.0 | 4.3 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 5.5 |
| 1953[1] | 2.5 | 8.9 | 7.1 | 4.5 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 4.6 |
| 1954 | 4.8 | 14.0 | 13.0 | 9.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 4.9 |
| 1955 | 3.7 | 12.2 | 10.4 | 7.0 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 5.1 |
| 1956 | 3.4 | 11.2 | 9.7 | 6.1 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 6.1 |
| 1957 | 3.6 | 11.9 | 11.2 | 7.1 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 6.8 |
| 1958 | 6.1 | 14.9 | 16.5 | 11.7 | 5.6 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 7.9 |
| 1959 | 4.6 | 15.0 | 13.0 | 7.5 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 7.2 |
| 1960[1] | 4.8 | 14.6 | 13.5 | 8.3 | 4.1 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 8.1 |
| 1961 | 5.7 | 16.5 | 15.1 | 10.0 | 4.9 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 8.0 |
| 1962[1] | 4.6 | 15.1 | 12.7 | 8.0 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 7.6 |
| 1963 | 4.7 | 17.8 | 14.2 | 7.8 | 3.9 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 7.9 |
| 1964 | 4.1 | 16.1 | 13.4 | 7.4 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 7.7 |
| 1965 | 3.6 | 14.7 | 11.4 | 5.9 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 7.1 |
| 1966 | 2.8 | 12.5 | 8.9 | 4.1 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 7.6 |
| 1967 | 2.7 | 12.7 | 9.0 | 4.2 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 8.9 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 3.8 | 9.7 | 6.8 | 4.2 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 2.4 | 7.6 |
| 1949 | 5.7 | 13.6 | 10.7 | 6.7 | 5.5 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 7.5 |
| 1950 | 5.3 | 13.8 | 9.4 | 6.1 | 5.2 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 3.1 | 8.0 |
| 1951 | 4.2 | 9.6 | 6.5 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 7.1 |
| 1952 | 3.3 | 9.3 | 6.2 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 7.6 |
| 1953[1] | 3.1 | 8.3 | 6.0 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 1.4 | 4.0 |
| 1954 | 5.6 | 12.0 | 9.4 | 6.4 | 5.7 | 4.9 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 2.8 | 6.8 |
| 1955 | 4.3 | 11.6 | 7.7 | 5.1 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 2.2 | 7.1 |
| 1956 | 4.2 | 12.1 | 8.3 | 5.1 | 4.0 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 2.3 | 7.8 |
| 1957 | 4.3 | 11.9 | 7.9 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 6.8 |
| 1958 | 6.2 | 15.6 | 11.0 | 7.4 | 6.6 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 4.3 | 3.5 | 5.8 |
| 1959 | 5.3 | 13.3 | 11.1 | 6.7 | 5.0 | 4.7 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 3.[illegible] | 5.2 |
| 1960[1] | 5.3 | 14.5 | 11.5 | 7.2 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 6.3 |
| 1961 | 6.5 | 17.0 | 13.6 | 8.4 | 6.6 | 5.6 | 4.8 | 4.3 | 3.7 | 6.6 |
| 1962[1] | 5.5 | 15.6 | 11.3 | 7.7 | 5.4 | 4.5 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 5.6 |
| 1963 | 5.8 | 18.1 | 13.2 | 7.4 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 3.9 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 5.9 |
| 1964 | 5.5 | 17.1 | 13.2 | 7.1 | 5.2 | 4.5 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 4.1 |
| 1965 | 5.0 | 15.0 | 13.4 | 6.3 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 4.4 |
| 1966 | 4.3 | 14.5 | 10.7 | 5.3 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 4.4 |
| 1967 | 4.6 | 12.9 | 10.6 | 6.0 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 5.2 |
| **NONWHITE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 5.8 | 9.4 | 10.5 | 11.7 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 4.6 | 3.2 |
| 1949 | 9.6 | 15.8 | 17.1 | 15.8 | 8.5 | 8.1 | 7.9 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 6.1 |
| 1950 | 9.4 | 12.1 | 17.7 | 12.6 | 10.0 | 7.9 | 7.4 | 8.0 | 7.0 | 10.8 |
| 1951 | 4.9 | 8.7 | 9.6 | 6.7 | 5.5 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 4.9 |
| 1952 | 5.2 | 8.0 | 10.0 | 7.9 | 5.5 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 5.5 |
| 1953[1] | 4.8 | 8.3 | 8.1 | 8.1 | 4.3 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 3.6 | 3.1 | 5.1 |
| 1954 | 10.3 | 13.4 | 14.7 | 16.9 | 10.1 | 9.0 | 9.3 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 5.1 |
| 1955 | 8.8 | 14.8 | 12.9 | 12.4 | 8.6 | 8.2 | 6.4 | 9.0 | 7.1 | 12.7 |
| 1956 | 7.9 | 15.7 | 14.9 | 12.0 | 7.6 | 6.6 | 5.4 | 8.1 | 4.9 | 13.0 |
| 1957 | 8.3 | 16.3 | 20.0 | 12.7 | 8.5 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 14.1 |
| 1958 | 13.8 | 27.1 | 26.7 | 19.5 | 14.7 | 11.4 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 9.0 | 13.0 |
| 1959 | 11.5 | 22.3 | 27.2 | 16.3 | 12.3 | 8.9 | 7.9 | 8.7 | 8.4 | 12.7 |
| 1960[1] | 10.7 | 22.7 | 25.1 | 13.1 | 10.7 | 8.2 | 8.5 | 9.5 | 6.3 | 13.3 |
| 1961 | 12.8 | 31.0 | 23.9 | 15.3 | 12.9 | 10.7 | 10.2 | 10.5 | 9.4 | 14.3 |
| 1962[1] | 10.9 | 21.9 | 21.8 | 14.6 | 10.5 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 9.6 | 11.9 | 15.2 |
| 1963 | 10.5 | 27.0 | 27.4 | 15.5 | 9.5 | 8.0 | 7.1 | 7.4 | 10.1 | 16.9 |
| 1964 | 8.9 | 25.9 | 23.1 | 12.6 | 7.7 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 8.1 | 8.3 | 19.1 |
| 1965 | 7.4 | 27.1 | 20.2 | 9.3 | 6.2 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 20.3 |
| 1966 | 6.3 | 22.5 | 20.5 | 7.9 | 4.9 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 20.0 |
| 1967 | 6.0 | 28.9 | 20.1 | 8.0 | 4.4 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 5.1 | 24.1 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 6.1 | 11.8 | 14.6 | 10.2 | 7.3 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 1.6 | (2) |
| 1949 | 7.9 | 20.3 | 15.9 | 12.5 | 8.5 | 6.2 | 4.0 | 5.4 | 1.6 | (2) |
| 1950 | 8.4 | 17.6 | 14.1 | 13.0 | 9.1 | 6.6 | 5.9 | 4.8 | 5.7 | (2) |
| 1951 | 6.1 | 13.0 | 15.1 | 8.8 | 7.1 | 5.6 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 1.6 | (2) |
| 1952 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 16.8 | 10.7 | 6.2 | 4.0 | 3.5 | 2.4 | 1.5 | (2) |
| 1953[1] | 4.1 | 10.3 | 9.9 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 3.5 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 1.6 | (2) |
| 1954 | 9.3 | 19.1 | 21.6 | 13.2 | 10.9 | 7.3 | 5.9 | 4.9 | 5.1 | (2) |
| 1955 | 8.4 | 15.4 | 21.4 | 13.0 | 10.2 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 3.3 | (2) |
| 1956 | 8.9 | 22.0 | 23.4 | 14.8 | 9.1 | 6.8 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 2.8 | (2) |
| 1957 | 7.3 | 18.3 | 21.3 | 12.2 | 8.1 | 4.7 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 4.3 | (2) |
| 1958 | 10.8 | 25.4 | 30.0 | 18.9 | 11.1 | 9.2 | 4.9 | 6.2 | 5.6 | (2) |
| 1959 | 9.4 | 25.8 | 29.9 | 14.9 | 9.7 | 7.6 | 6.1 | 5.0 | 2.3 | (2) |
| 1960[1] | 9.4 | 25.7 | 24.5 | 15.3 | 9.1 | 8.6 | 5.7 | 4.3 | 4.1 | (2) |
| 1961 | 11.8 | 31.1 | 28.2 | 19.5 | 11.1 | 10.7 | 7.4 | 6.3 | 6.5 | (2) |
| 1962[1] | 11.0 | 27.8 | 31.2 | 18.2 | 11.5 | 8.9 | 7.1 | 3.6 | 3.7 | (2) |
| 1963 | 11.2 | 40.1 | 31.9 | 18.7 | 11.7 | 8.2 | 6.1 | 4.8 | 3.6 | (2) |
| 1964 | 10.6 | 36.5 | 29.2 | 18.3 | 11.2 | 7.8 | 6.1 | 3.8 | 2.2 | (2) |
| 1965 | 9.2 | 37.8 | 27.8 | 13.7 | 8.4 | 7.6 | 4.4 | 3.9 | 3.1 | (2) |
| 1966 | 8.6 | 34.8 | 29.2 | 12.6 | 8.1 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 3.3 | 4.0 | (2) |
| 1967 | 9.1 | 32.0 | 28.3 | 13.8 | 8.7 | 6.2 | 4.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | (2) |

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[1] See footnote 1, table A-1.

[2] Rate not shown where base is less than 50,000.

## Table A–14. Unemployment Rates of Persons 16 Years and Over and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Occupation Group: Annual Averages, 1958–67 [1]

| Year | Total unemployed | Experienced workers | | | | | | | | | | | | | Persons with no previous work experience [2] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | White-collar workers | | | | | Blue-collar workers | | | | Service workers | | | Farmers and farm laborers | |
| | | Total | Professional and technical | Managers, officials, and proprietors | Clerical workers | Sales workers | Total | Craftsmen and foremen | Operatives | Nonfarm laborers | Total | Private household workers | Other service workers | | |
| | Unemployment rate | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 3.1 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 10.2 | 6.8 | 11.0 | 15.0 | 6.9 | 5.6 | 7.4 | 3.2 | ---------- |
| 1959 | 5.5 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 7.6 | 5.3 | 7.6 | 12.6 | 6.1 | 5.2 | 6.4 | 2.6 | ---------- |
| 1960 [3] | 5.5 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 7.8 | 5.3 | 8.0 | 12.6 | 5.8 | 5.3 | 6.0 | 2.7 | ---------- |
| 1961 | 6.7 | 3.3 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 9.2 | 6.3 | 9.6 | 14.7 | 7.2 | 6.4 | 7.4 | 2.8 | ---------- |
| 1962 [3] | 5.5 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 7.4 | 5.1 | 7.5 | 12.5 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 6.5 | 2.3 | ---------- |
| 1963 | 5.7 | 2.9 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 4.8 | 7.5 | 12.4 | 6.1 | 5.8 | 6.3 | 3.0 | ---------- |
| 1964 | 5.2 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 6.3 | 4.1 | 6.6 | 10.8 | 6.0 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 3.1 | ---------- |
| 1965 | 4.5 | 2.3 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 5.3 | 3.6 | 5.5 | 8.6 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 2.6 | ---------- |
| 1966 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 4.4 | 7.4 | 4.6 | 4.1 | 4.8 | 2.2 | ---------- |
| 1967 | 3.8 | 2.2 | 1.3 | .9 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 2.5 | 5.0 | 7.6 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 2.3 | ---------- |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 18.4 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 9.1 | 3.7 | 57.4 | 13.4 | 30.6 | 13.4 | 12.1 | 2.5 | 9.5 | 3.8 | 8.3 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 19.7 | 3.3 | 2.4 | 9.5 | 4.5 | 52.6 | 12.7 | 26.0 | 14.0 | 13.4 | 2.9 | 10.5 | 3.8 | 10.5 |
| 1960 [3] | 100.0 | 20.2 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 10.0 | 4.3 | 52.8 | 12.3 | 27.1 | 13.3 | 12.9 | 2.9 | 10.0 | 3.7 | 10.4 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 21.0 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 10.1 | 4.6 | 51.1 | 12.4 | 26.5 | 12.3 | 13.6 | 3.0 | 10.6 | 3.1 | 11.3 |
| 1962 [3] | 100.0 | 21.7 | 3.6 | 2.8 | 10.6 | 4.7 | 49.2 | 11.8 | 24.9 | 12.4 | 14.2 | 3.0 | 11.2 | 2.7 | 12.1 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 21.7 | 3.8 | 2.7 | 10.6 | 4.6 | 47.7 | 11.2 | 24.7 | 11.9 | 13.9 | 3.0 | 10.9 | 3.3 | 13.4 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 21.6 | 3.9 | 2.7 | 10.8 | 4.1 | 45.3 | 10.3 | 23.9 | 11.1 | 14.9 | 3.1 | 11.8 | 3.6 | 14.7 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 22.3 | 4.0 | 2.5 | 11.1 | 4.8 | 43.4 | 10.2 | 22.9 | 10.3 | 14.9 | 2.9 | 12.0 | 3.3 | 16.1 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 23.6 | 4.3 | 2.6 | 12.1 | 4.6 | 41.5 | 9.7 | 21.9 | 9.9 | 15.5 | 2.9 | 12.7 | 2.8 | 16.6 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 25.3 | 4.5 | 2.3 | 13.4 | 5.1 | 42.6 | 8.4 | 24.5 | 9.7 | 14.8 | 2.5 | 12.3 | 2.9 | 14.5 |

[1] Data for persons 16 years and over are not available prior to 1958. Data for persons 14 years and over beginning with 1947 were shown in previous issues of the *Manpower Report*.

[2] Unemployed persons who never held a full-time civilian job.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–15. Unemployment Rates and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Major Industry Group: Annual Averages, 1948–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1948-66, 16 years and over for 1966-67]

| Year | Total unemployed [1] | Experienced wage and salary workers | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Agriculture | Nonagricultural industries | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | Total | Mining, forestry, fisheries | Construction | Manufacturing | | | Transportation and public utilities | Wholesale and retail trade | Finance, insurance, real estate | Service industries | Public administration |
| | | | | | | | Total | Durable goods | Nondurable goods | | | | | |
| | Unemployment rate | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 2.9 | 7.6 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 1.6 | 3.5 | 2.0 |
| 1949 | 5.5 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.2 | 8.5 | 11.9 | 7.2 | 7.4 | 6.9 | 5.2 | 5.8 | 1.8 | 5.1 | 2.9 |
| 1950 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 8.2 | 5.4 | 6.6 | 10.7 | 5.6 | 5.2 | 6.0 | 4.1 | 5.8 | 2.0 | 5.0 | 2.8 |
| 1951 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 6.0 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 4.0 | 1.9 | 3.7 | 1.3 | 3.1 | 1.6 |
| 1952 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 5.5 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 1.9 | 3.1 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 1.1 |
| 1953 [2] | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.7 | 2.6 | 4.9 | 6.1 | 2.5 | 2.0 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 3.0 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 1.2 |
| 1954 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 8.0 | 5.4 | 12.3 | 10.5 | 6.1 | 6.5 | 5.7 | 4.8 | 5.2 | 2.0 | 4.0 | 2.0 |
| 1955 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 6.4 | 4.2 | 8.2 | 9.2 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 2.1 | 3.8 | 1.8 |
| 1956 [3] | 3.8 | 3.9 | 6.5 | 3.8 | 6.4 | 8.3 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 2.4 | 4.1 | 1.4 | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| 1957 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 6.7 | 4.5 | 6.3 | 9.8 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 3.1 | 4.5 | 1.8 | 3.4 | 2.0 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 7.2 | 9.9 | 7.1 | 10.6 | 13.7 | 9.2 | 10.5 | 7.6 | 5.6 | 6.7 | 2.9 | 4.6 | 3.0 |
| 1959 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 8.7 | 5.5 | 9.7 | 12.0 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 4.2 | 5.8 | 2.6 | 4.3 | 2.3 |
| 1960 [2] | 5.6 | 5.7 | 8.0 | 5.6 | 9.5 | 12.2 | 6.2 | 6.3 | 6.0 | 4.3 | 5.9 | 2.4 | 4.1 | 2.6 |
| 1961 | 6.7 | 6.8 | 9.3 | 6.7 | 11.6 | 14.1 | 7.7 | 8.4 | 6.7 | 5.1 | 7.2 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 2.7 |
| 1962 [2] | 5.6 | 5.5 | 7.3 | 5.5 | 8.6 | 12.0 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 3.9 | 6.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 2.2 |
| 1963 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 8.9 | 5.4 | 7.5 | 11.9 | 5.7 | 5.4 | 6.0 | 3.9 | 6.2 | 2.7 | 4.4 | 2.5 |
| 1964 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 9.3 | 4.8 | 7.6 | 9.9 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 3.3 | 5.7 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 2.3 |
| 1965 | 4.6 | 4.2 | 7.3 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 9.0 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 2.7 | 5.0 | 2.3 | 3.8 | 1.9 |
| 1966 | 3.9 | 3.5 | 6.5 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 7.1 | 3.2 | 2.7 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 4.4 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| 1966 [4] | 3.8 | 3.5 | 6.6 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 7.1 | 3.2 | 2.7 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 4.4 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 1.6 |
| 1967 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 6.9 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 6.6 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 2.3 | 4.2 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 1.8 |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 100.0 | 87.7 | 4.2 | 83.5 | 1.4 | 10.7 | 28.0 | 14.3 | 13.6 | 6.8 | 18.8 | 1.3 | 13.9 | 2.7 |
| 1949 | 100.0 | 89.6 | 3.7 | 85.9 | 2.2 | 10.9 | 33.3 | 17.8 | 15.4 | 7.2 | 16.2 | .9 | 12.9 | 2.4 |
| 1950 | 100.0 | 89.1 | 4.9 | 84.2 | 2.0 | 11.0 | 28.8 | 13.9 | 14.9 | 5.9 | 17.9 | 1.1 | 14.9 | 2.6 |
| 1951 | 100.0 | 87.8 | 3.6 | 84.3 | 2.0 | 10.8 | 29.3 | 12.5 | 16.8 | 4.7 | 18.6 | 1.3 | 15.1 | 2.4 |
| 1952 | 100.0 | 87.7 | 3.7 | 84.0 | 2.0 | 12.1 | 28.3 | 13.3 | 15.1 | 5.3 | 18.0 | 1.7 | 14.5 | 2.1 |
| 1953 [2] | 100.0 | 88.6 | 4.5 | 84.1 | 2.7 | 12.9 | 27.0 | 13.1 | 13.9 | 5.3 | 17.9 | 1.9 | 14.1 | 2.2 |
| 1954 | 100.0 | 89.8 | 3.9 | 85.9 | 3.1 | 11.4 | 33.3 | 20.0 | 13.3 | 6.7 | 16.0 | 1.2 | 12.4 | 1.8 |
| 1955 | 100.0 | 88.0 | 4.4 | 83.6 | 2.5 | 12.5 | 27.5 | 15.0 | 12.5 | 6.0 | 16.3 | 1.7 | 15.0 | 2.0 |
| 1956 [3] | 100.0 | 85.8 | 4.6 | 81.2 | 2.1 | 11.8 | 29.0 | 16.1 | 12.9 | 4.5 | 16.6 | 1.2 | 14.2 | 1.9 |
| 1957 | 100.0 | 87.2 | 4.2 | 83.0 | 1.7 | 12.5 | 30.8 | 17.2 | 13.6 | 5.0 | 15.9 | 1.5 | 13.6 | 2.1 |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 87.8 | 3.9 | 83.9 | 1.7 | 11.6 | 34.4 | 22.2 | 12.2 | 5.4 | 15.2 | 1.5 | 12.1 | 2.0 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 85.6 | 4.2 | 81.4 | 1.8 | 12.6 | 27.8 | 16.1 | 11.6 | 5.0 | 16.3 | 1.7 | 14.3 | 1.9 |
| 1960 [2] | 100.0 | 85.3 | 4.1 | 81.2 | 1.7 | 12.3 | 28.2 | 16.0 | 12.2 | 5.2 | 16.3 | 1.7 | 13.6 | 2.2 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 84.9 | 3.7 | 81.2 | 1.6 | 11.7 | 28.8 | 17.4 | 11.3 | 4.9 | 16.4 | 1.9 | 13.9 | 1.9 |
| 1962 [2] | 100.0 | 83.9 | 3.3 | 80.6 | 1.4 | 12.1 | 26.2 | 14.4 | 11.8 | 4.4 | 17.1 | 2.1 | 15.3 | 1.9 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 82.5 | 3.9 | 78.5 | 1.2 | 11.4 | 25.6 | 13.8 | 11.8 | 4.3 | 16.7 | 1.9 | 15.2 | 2.2 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 81.4 | 4.2 | 77.2 | 1.3 | 10.5 | 24.4 | 12.9 | 11.5 | 3.9 | 16.9 | 2.0 | 16.0 | 2.2 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 79.5 | 3.4 | 76.1 | 1.0 | 10.9 | 22.5 | 11.1 | 11.4 | 3.7 | 17.1 | 2.1 | 16.8 | 2.1 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 79.0 | 3.2 | 75.8 | .8 | 10.0 | 22.0 | 11.0 | 11.0 | 3.2 | 18.0 | 2.2 | 17.6 | 2.2 |
| 1966 [4] | 100.0 | 81.0 | 3.1 | 77.9 | .8 | 10.3 | 22.7 | 11.4 | 11.3 | 3.3 | 18.4 | 2.2 | 17.9 | 2.2 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 83.6 | 3.2 | 80.4 | .8 | 9.1 | 26.2 | 14.2 | 12.0 | 3.6 | 17.6 | 2.8 | 17.8 | 2.6 |

[1] Also includes the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and those with no previous work experience, not shown separately.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–10.

[4] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

## Table A–16. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Duration of Unemployment: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Year | Total | Less than 5 weeks | 5 and 6 weeks | 7 to 10 weeks | 11 to 14 weeks | 15 weeks and over | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | Total | 15 to 26 weeks | 27 weeks and over |
| | Number unemployed (thousands) | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 2,311 | 1,210 | 203 | 308 | 193 | 398 | 234 | 164 |
| 1948 | 2,276 | 1,300 | 208 | 297 | 164 | 309 | 193 | 111 |
| 1949 | 3,637 | 1,756 | 309 | 555 | 331 | 683 | 427 | 256 |
| 1950 | 3,288 | 1,450 | 275 | 479 | 301 | 782 | 425 | 357 |
| 1951 | 2,055 | 1,177 | 169 | 252 | 153 | 303 | 166 | 137 |
| 1952 | 1,883 | 1,135 | 168 | 223 | 126 | 232 | 148 | 84 |
| 1953 [1] | 1,834 | 1,142 | 149 | 209 | 124 | 211 | 132 | 79 |
| 1954 | 3,532 | 1,605 | 306 | 504 | 305 | 812 | 495 | 317 |
| 1955 | 2,852 | 1,335 | 230 | 368 | 217 | 703 | 367 | 336 |
| 1956 | 2,750 | 1,412 | 234 | 360 | 211 | 533 | 301 | 232 |
| 1957 | 2,859 | 1,408 | 258 | 392 | 240 | 560 | 321 | 239 |
| 1958 | 4,602 | 1,753 | 363 | 596 | 438 | 1,452 | 785 | 667 |
| 1959 | 3,740 | 1,585 | 304 | 474 | 335 | 1,040 | 469 | 571 |
| 1960 [1] | 3,852 | 1,719 | 324 | 499 | 353 | 956 | 502 | 454 |
| 1961 | 4,714 | 1,806 | 377 | 587 | 411 | 1,532 | 728 | 804 |
| 1962 [1] | 3,911 | 1,659 | 334 | 478 | 323 | 1,119 | 534 | 585 |
| 1963 | 4,070 | 1,751 | 358 | 519 | 354 | 1,088 | 535 | 553 |
| 1964 | 3,786 | 1,697 | 314 | 483 | 319 | 973 | 490 | 482 |
| 1965 | 3,366 | 1,628 | 286 | 422 | 276 | 755 | 404 | 351 |
| 1966 | 2,875 | 1,535 | 252 | 346 | 206 | 536 | 295 | 241 |
| 1967 | 2,975 | 1,635 | 278 | 397 | 218 | 449 | 271 | 177 |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 100.0 | 52.4 | 8.8 | 13.3 | 8.4 | 17.2 | 10.1 | 7.1 |
| 1948 | 100.0 | 57.1 | 9.1 | 13.0 | 7.2 | 13.6 | 8.5 | 5.1 |
| 1949 | 100.0 | 48.3 | 8.5 | 15.3 | 9.1 | 18.8 | 11.8 | 7.0 |
| 1950 | 100.0 | 44.1 | 8.4 | 14.6 | 9.2 | 23.8 | 12.9 | 10.9 |
| 1951 | 100.0 | 57.3 | 8.2 | 12.3 | 7.4 | 14.7 | 8.1 | 6.7 |
| 1952 | 100.0 | 60.2 | 8.9 | 11.8 | 6.7 | 12.3 | 7.9 | 4.5 |
| 1953 [1] | 100.0 | 62.2 | 8.1 | 11.4 | 6.8 | 11.5 | 7.2 | 4.3 |
| 1954 | 100.0 | 45.4 | 8.7 | 14.3 | 8.6 | 23.0 | 14.0 | 9.0 |
| 1955 | 100.0 | 46.8 | 8.1 | 12.9 | 7.6 | 24.6 | 12.9 | 11.8 |
| 1956 | 100.0 | 51.3 | 8.5 | 13.1 | 7.7 | 19.4 | 10.9 | 8.4 |
| 1957 | 100.0 | 49.3 | 9.0 | 13.7 | 8.4 | 19.6 | 11.2 | 8.4 |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 38.1 | 7.9 | 13.0 | 9.5 | 31.6 | 17.1 | 14.5 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 42.4 | 8.1 | 12.7 | 9.0 | 27.8 | 12.5 | 15.3 |
| 1960 [1] | 100.0 | 44.6 | 8.4 | 13.0 | 9.2 | 24.8 | 13.0 | 11.8 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 38.3 | 8.0 | 12.5 | 8.7 | 32.5 | 15.4 | 17.1 |
| 1962 [1] | 100.0 | 42.4 | 8.5 | 12.2 | 8.3 | 28.6 | 13.6 | 15.0 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 43.0 | 8.8 | 12.8 | 8.7 | 26.7 | 13.1 | 13.6 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 44.8 | 8.3 | 12.8 | 8.4 | 25.7 | 12.9 | 12.7 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 48.4 | 8.5 | 12.5 | 8.2 | 22.4 | 12.0 | 10.4 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 53.4 | 8.8 | 12.0 | 7.2 | 18.6 | 10.3 | 8.4 |
| 1967 | 100.0 | 54.9 | 9.3 | 13.3 | 7.3 | 15.1 | 9.1 | 5.9 |

[1] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table A–17. Unemployment Rates by Sex and Marital Status: Annual Averages, 1955–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1955–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67]

| Year | Both sexes | Male | | | | Female | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Single | Married, wife present | Widowed, divorced, separated | Total | Single | Married, husband present | Widowed, divorced, separated |
| 1955 [1] | 4.0 | 3.9 | 8.6 | 2.6 | 7.1 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 3.7 | 5.0 |
| 1956 [2] | 3.8 | 3.5 | 7.7 | 2.3 | 6.2 | 4.3 | 5.3 | 3.6 | 5.0 |
| 1957 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 9.2 | 2.8 | 6.8 | 4.7 | 5.6 | 4.3 | 4.7 |
| 1958 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 13.3 | 5.1 | 11.2 | 6.8 | 7.4 | 6.5 | 6.7 |
| 1959 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 11.6 | 3.6 | 8.6 | 5.9 | 7.1 | 5.2 | 6.2 |
| 1960 [3] | 5.6 | 5.4 | 11.7 | 3.7 | 8.4 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 5.2 | 5.9 |
| 1961 | 6.7 | 6.5 | 13.1 | 4.6 | 10.3 | 7.2 | 8.7 | 6.4 | 7.4 |
| 1962 [3] | 5.6 | 5.3 | 11.2 | 3.6 | 9.9 | 6.2 | 7.9 | 5.4 | 6.4 |
| 1963 | 5.7 | 5.3 | 12.4 | 3.4 | 9.6 | 6.5 | 8.9 | 5.4 | 6.7 |
| 1964 | 5.2 | 4.7 | 11.5 | 2.8 | 8.9 | 6.2 | 8.7 | 5.1 | 6.4 |
| 1965 | 4.6 | 4.0 | 10.1 | 2.4 | 7.2 | 5.5 | 8.2 | 4.5 | 5.4 |
| 1966 | 3.9 | 3.3 | 8.6 | 1.9 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 7.8 | 3.7 | 4.7 |
| 1966 [4] | 3.8 | 3.2 | 8.6 | 1.9 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 7.9 | 3.7 | 4.7 |
| 1967 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 8.3 | 1.8 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 7.5 | 4.5 | 4.6 |

[1] Annual averages not available prior to 1955; data for 1 month of each year beginning 1947 are shown in table B–1.

[2] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–10.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[4] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

## Table A–18. Long-Term Unemployment Compared with Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67; numbers in thousands]

| Item | 1967 | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [3] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total unemployed | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 2,975 | 2,875 | 2,976 | 3,456 | 3,876 | 4,166 | 4,007 | 4,806 | 3,931 | 3,813 | 4,681 | 2,936 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 50.7 | 54.0 | 54.6 | 57.3 | 58.6 | 60.9 | 62.1 | 63.7 | 64.6 | 64.9 | 67.4 | 64.5 |
| Under 20 years | 15.0 | 15.0 | 16.9 | 15.8 | 14.3 | 13.6 | 11.8 | 11.3 | 12.2 | 11.8 | 10.1 | 12.0 |
| Under 18 | 8.1 | 7.6 | 9.8 | 9.1 | 8.3 | 7.5 | 6.3 | 5.9 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 5.2 | 6.5 |
| 18 and 19 | 6.9 | 7.4 | 7.1 | 6.7 | 5.9 | 6.1 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.7 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 5.4 |
| 20 to 24 years | 7.9 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 9.0 | 9.9 | 9.5 | 9.5 | 9.5 | 9.4 | 9.0 | 10.2 | 9.6 |
| 25 to 44 years | 13.6 | 15.9 | 15.4 | 16.7 | 17.2 | 19.9 | 21.2 | 22.7 | 23.1 | 23.3 | 26.4 | 22.3 |
| 45 to 64 years | 12.2 | 13.1 | 12.7 | 13.7 | 15.0 | 15.5 | 17.0 | 17.6 | 17.5 | 17.8 | 18.0 | 17.8 |
| 65 years and over | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 2.7 | 2.8 |
| Female | 49.3 | 46.0 | 45.4 | 42.7 | 41.4 | 39.1 | 37.9 | 36.3 | 35.4 | 35.1 | 32.6 | 35.5 |
| Under 20 years | 13.1 | 14.0 | 14.6 | 12.1 | 10.6 | 9.9 | 8.6 | 7.9 | 7.9 | 7.2 | 6.1 | 7.6 |
| Under 18 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 6.9 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 4.9 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 2.9 | 3.9 |
| 18 and 19 | 7.8 | 8.0 | 7.7 | 6.7 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 3.6 |
| 20 to 24 years | 9.3 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 6.3 | 6.4 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 5.0 |
| 25 to 44 years | 16.7 | 14.2 | 13.7 | 14.4 | 14.0 | 13.8 | 13.7 | 13.4 | 13.1 | 13.3 | 13.4 | 14.3 |
| 45 to 64 years | 9.3 | 9.0 | 8.7 | 8.2 | 8.9 | 8.4 | 8.3 | 8.7 | 8.2 | 8.7 | 7.7 | 7.7 |
| 65 years and over | .9 | .9 | .9 | .8 | .9 | .7 | .9 | .7 | .6 | .6 | .7 | 1.0 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 78.6 | 78.4 | 78.2 | 79.7 | 79.1 | 78.8 | 78.1 | 79.5 | 79.6 | 78.8 | 80.0 | 80.1 |
| Male | 40.6 | 43.1 | 43.5 | 46.4 | 47.2 | 48.7 | 49.1 | 51.0 | 51.7 | 51.0 | 54.2 | 51.8 |
| Female | 38.0 | 35.2 | 34.7 | 33.3 | 31.9 | 30.1 | 28.9 | 28.5 | 27.9 | 27.8 | 25.8 | 28.3 |
| Nonwhite | 21.4 | 21.6 | 21.8 | 20.3 | 20.9 | 21.2 | 21.9 | 20.5 | 20.4 | 21.2 | 20.0 | 19.9 |
| Male | 10.1 | 10.8 | 11.0 | 10.9 | 11.4 | 12.2 | 12.9 | 12.7 | 12.9 | 13.8 | 13.2 | 12.7 |
| Female | 11.4 | 10.8 | 10.8 | 9.4 | 9.5 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.4 | 6.8 | 7.2 |
| | Unemployed 15 weeks and over | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 449 | 525 | 536 | 755 | 973 | 1,088 | 1,119 | 1,532 | 956 | 1,040 | 1,452 | 560 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 56.8 | 61.6 | 61.6 | 60.8 | 62.3 | 65.7 | 67.4 | 69.3 | 69.5 | 71.0 | 72.7 | 68.9 |
| Under 20 years | 10.2 | 9.7 | 11.0 | 10.6 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 8.1 | 7.8 | 8.7 | 8.8 | 7.3 | 8.2 |
| Under 18 | 5.3 | 4.4 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 4.3 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 3.2 | 4.1 |
| 18 and 19 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 4.9 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| 20 to 24 years | 5.5 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 7.6 | 8.1 | 8.4 | 9.2 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 9.5 | 7.6 |
| 25 to 44 years | 16.6 | 18.8 | 18.4 | 18.3 | 17.9 | 21.2 | 22.2 | 25.0 | 24.0 | 26.4 | 29.0 | 22.0 |
| 45 to 64 years | 19.5 | 22.4 | 22.0 | 21.1 | 22.9 | 22.6 | 24.2 | 22.8 | 24.3 | 22.9 | 22.7 | 25.7 |
| 65 years and over | 4.9 | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 3.9 | 5.7 |
| Female | 43.2 | 38.4 | 38.4 | 39.2 | 37.7 | 34.3 | 32.6 | 30.7 | 30.5 | 29.0 | 27.3 | 31.1 |
| Under 20 years | 9.1 | 8.4 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 6.1 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.3 |
| Under 18 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.6 |
| 18 and 19 | 6.4 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 3.6 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.7 |
| 20 to 24 years | 6.4 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 3.4 |
| 25 to 44 years | 14.2 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 14.0 | 13.9 | 13.2 | 13.0 | 12.3 | 12.0 | 11.1 | 12.8 | 13.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 11.8 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 10.2 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 8.6 | 9.8 | 7.5 | 9.3 |
| 65 years and over | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.4 | .9 | 1.2 | .9 | .8 | .6 | .7 | 1.1 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 76.7 | 76.4 | 76.3 | 77.0 | 77.1 | 74.0 | 74.1 | 77.5 | 75.1 | 75.7 | 78.0 | 77.4 |
| Male | 44.9 | 48.5 | 48.5 | 47.9 | 49.2 | 49.4 | 50.7 | 53.9 | 52.4 | 53.4 | 56.7 | 53.0 |
| Female | 31.8 | 27.9 | 27.8 | 29.2 | 27.9 | 24.6 | 23.4 | 23.6 | 22.7 | 22.4 | 21.3 | 24.4 |
| Nonwhite | 23.3 | 23.6 | 23.7 | 22.9 | 22.9 | 26.0 | 25.9 | 22.5 | 24.9 | 24.3 | 22.0 | 22.6 |
| Male | 11.8 | 13.1 | 13.2 | 13.0 | 13.3 | 16.4 | 16.7 | 15.3 | 17.1 | 17.9 | 16.0 | 15.8 |
| Female | 11.6 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 9.9 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 9.2 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 6.4 | 6.0 | 6.8 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A–18. Long-Term Unemployment Compared with Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–67—Continued

| Item | 1967 | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [2] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Unemployed 27 weeks and over | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 179 | 239 | 241 | 351 | 482 | 553 | 585 | 804 | 454 | 571 | 667 | 239 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 61.5 | 66.4 | 66.9 | 65.0 | 64.8 | 69.3 | 69.8 | 70.7 | 72.2 | 72.6 | 73.6 | 70.7 |
| Under 20 years | 8.4 | 6.7 | 7.5 | 9.1 | 8.8 | 9.0 | 7.3 | 6.5 | 7.3 | 7.5 | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| Under 18 | 3.9 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 2.7 | 3.3 |
| 18 and 19 | 4.5 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 5.2 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 3.0 |
| 20 to 24 years | 5.0 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 6.6 | 6.4 | 7.8 | 7.7 | 8.1 | 7.7 | 7.8 | 9.6 | 5.9 |
| 25 to 44 years | 15.1 | 21.4 | 21.3 | 19.1 | 16.0 | 20.4 | 23.0 | 24.8 | 24.2 | 27.8 | 28.2 | 21.8 |
| 45 to 64 years | 25.7 | 29.0 | 28.9 | 25.1 | 28.0 | 26.4 | 26.6 | 25.9 | 27.4 | 24.8 | 24.2 | 29.7 |
| 65 years and over | 7.3 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 7.5 |
| Female | 38.5 | 33.6 | 33.1 | 35.0 | 35.2 | 30.7 | 30.2 | 29.3 | 27.8 | 27.4 | 26.4 | 29.3 |
| Under 20 years | 6.7 | 6.3 | 6.7 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 3.4 |
| Under 18 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.2 | .7 | 1.0 | .7 | .9 | .8 |
| 18 and 19 | 5.0 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 2.5 |
| 20 to 24 years | 4.5 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 5.6 | 4.0 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 3.2 | 2.1 |
| 25 to 44 years | 11.2 | 10.1 | 9.6 | 13.7 | 12.1 | 11.4 | 11.8 | 12.0 | 10.8 | 10.0 | 12.2 | 12.6 |
| 45 to 64 years | 12.8 | 10.9 | 10.9 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 10.3 | 9.0 | 9.7 | 8.5 | 10.5 | 8.0 | 10.0 |
| 65 years and over | 3.4 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.1 | .9 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 1.1 | .6 | .9 | 1.3 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 74.7 | 75.3 | 75.4 | 74.6 | 74.7 | 71.8 | 71.6 | 76.4 | 74.0 | 73.8 | 77.0 | 75.9 |
| Male | 46.6 | 52.3 | 52.5 | 49.6 | 50.2 | 50.8 | 50.4 | 53.7 | 53.1 | 52.6 | 56.3 | 53.9 |
| Female | 28.1 | 23.0 | 22.9 | 25.1 | 24.5 | 21.0 | 21.2 | 22.7 | 20.9 | 21.2 | 20.7 | 22.0 |
| Nonwhite | 25.3 | 24.7 | 24.6 | 25.4 | 25.3 | 28.2 | 28.4 | 23.6 | 26.0 | 26.2 | 23.0 | 24.1 |
| Male | 15.2 | 14.2 | 14.2 | 15.4 | 14.7 | 18.4 | 19.3 | 17.1 | 18.9 | 20.3 | 17.3 | 16.6 |
| Female | 10.1 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 10.0 | 10.6 | 9.8 | 9.1 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 5.9 | 5.7 | 7.5 |

[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the items "under 20 years" and "under 18" referred to persons 14 to 19 years and 14 to 17 years, respectively.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table A–19. Long-Term Unemployment by Major Industry and Occupation Group: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957-66, 16 years and over for 1966-67; numbers in thousands]

| Industry and occupation group | 1967 | 1966[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962[2] | 1961 | 1960[2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957[3] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Unemployed 15 weeks and over | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 449 | 525 | 536 | 755 | 973 | 1,088 | 1,119 | 1,532 | 956 | 1,040 | 1,452 | 560 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture | 3.5 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 2.9 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 84.9 | 83.3 | 81.7 | 82.4 | 84.0 | 84.8 | 86.5 | 88.4 | 86.4 | 88.5 | 90.9 | 88.8 |
| Wage and salary workers | 82.8 | 80.0 | 78.5 | 79.9 | 81.5 | 82.3 | 84.1 | 86.0 | 83.8 | 86.0 | 88.9 | 85.7 |
| Mining, forestry, fisheries | .8 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 2.3 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 |
| Construction | 10.7 | 10.1 | 9.9 | 10.6 | 9.2 | 10.8 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 12.3 | 14.3 | 10.5 | 11.9 |
| Manufacturing | 29.8 | 24.0 | 23.3 | 25.2 | 28.6 | 29.9 | 29.4 | 34.6 | 31.3 | 32.2 | 42.3 | 36.9 |
| Durable goods | 16.7 | 12.0 | 11.6 | 13.3 | 16.5 | 17.8 | 17.6 | 23.3 | 19.1 | 20.1 | 29.9 | 21.2 |
| Nondurable goods | 13.0 | 12.0 | 11.8 | 12.0 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.7 | 11.4 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.4 | 15.7 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 6.4 | 4.8 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 16.6 | 17.3 | 17.0 | 17.0 | 16.7 | 15.6 | 17.8 | 15.5 | 15.3 | 15.1 | 13.5 | 13.7 |
| Finance and service | 18.5 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 18.9 | 17.2 | 16.1 | 15.8 | 13.9 | 13.3 | 13.8 | 11.3 | 12.7 |
| Public administration | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.9 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 2.1 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 3.0 |
| Persons with no previous work experience | 11.6 | 12.4 | 13.6 | 13.8 | 12.8 | 12.1 | 11.4 | 9.2 | 10.0 | 8.8 | 7.0 | 8.4 |
| OCCUPATION GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Professional and technical workers | 4.1 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.3 | 2.9 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 1.4 |
| Farmers and farm managers | .2 | .8 | .7 | .5 | .4 | .4 | .1 | .1 | .2 | .3 | .2 | .3 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 3.8 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 3.1 |
| Clerical workers | 12.4 | 9.3 | 9.2 | 10.3 | 12.3 | 10.6 | 9.9 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 9.4 | 7.8 | 8.2 |
| Sales workers | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 4.4 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 9.6 | 10.7 | 10.5 | 10.9 | 10.6 | 11.4 | 12.3 | 13.6 | 11.7 | 12.4 | 13.7 | 11.0 |
| Operatives | 26.6 | 22.3 | 21.9 | 24.3 | 24.6 | 26.5 | 25.4 | 29.3 | 29.0 | 28.7 | 35.1 | 31.8 |
| Private household workers | 1.8 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 2.8 |
| Service workers exc. private household | 12.2 | 13.9 | 13.8 | 12.5 | 12.0 | 10.8 | 11.9 | 10.6 | 9.9 | 10.3 | 8.9 | 10.6 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 2.1 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 2.4 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 10.9 | 11.8 | 11.6 | 10.5 | 11.5 | 13.2 | 14.2 | 14.6 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 15.8 | 15.5 |
| Persons with no previous work experience | 11.6 | 12.4 | 13.6 | 13.8 | 12.8 | 12.1 | 11.4 | 9.2 | 10.0 | 8.8 | 7.0 | 8.4 |
| | Unemployed 27 weeks and over | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 177 | 239 | 241 | 351 | 482 | 553 | 585 | 804 | 454 | 571 | 667 | 239 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 3.7 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 2.5 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 84.3 | 84.3 | 83.7 | 83.5 | 84.2 | 84.8 | 87.0 | 89.3 | 86.5 | 89.2 | 92.0 | 89.1 |
| Wage and salary workers | 81.0 | 80.1 | 79.5 | 79.8 | 81.3 | 82.6 | 84.8 | 86.8 | 83.2 | 87.1 | 90.0 | 86.2 |
| Mining, forestry, fisheries | .6 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 3.5 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 2.9 |
| Construction | 10.9 | 8.1 | 7.9 | 6.8 | 7.7 | 9.2 | 8.7 | 9.5 | 11.1 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 10.0 |
| Manufacturing | 29.7 | 24.6 | 24.7 | 26.5 | 29.5 | 28.4 | 30.1 | 37.1 | 30.1 | 37.7 | 44.9 | 37.7 |
| Durable goods | 17.1 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 14.2 | 17.5 | 16.5 | 19.0 | 25.5 | 18.8 | 24.1 | 31.8 | 21.4 |
| Nondurable goods | 12.6 | 12.3 | 12.6 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 12.0 | 11.1 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 13.6 | 13.2 | 16.3 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 3.6 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.3 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 4.1 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 15.4 | 16.9 | 16.3 | 17.7 | 15.6 | 15.8 | 18.8 | 15.2 | 15.0 | 15.2 | 12.7 | 14.5 |
| Finance and service | 18.5 | 20.9 | 20.9 | 18.5 | 17.3 | 17.8 | 16.2 | 13.2 | 13.5 | 12.0 | 10.9 | 12.4 |
| Public administration | 2.2 | 3.0 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 4.6 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 3.7 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.9 |
| Persons with no previous work experience | 11.8 | 11.4 | 12.1 | 12.8 | 13.1 | 13.0 | 11.3 | 9.1 | 11.1 | 8.6 | 6.2 | 8.3 |
| OCCUPATION GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Professional and technical workers | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.0 |
| Farmers and farm managers | .6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.1 | .4 | .5 | .2 | .1 | .2 | .9 | .2 | .8 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 5.9 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.5 |
| Clerical workers | 11.0 | 8.4 | 8.3 | 10.5 | 11.2 | 9.9 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 7.3 | 7.9 |
| Sales workers | 5.4 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 2.9 | 4.3 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 9.0 | 11.3 | 11.2 | 10.8 | 10.0 | 10.7 | 10.9 | 12.6 | 11.2 | 11.7 | 12.4 | 9.8 |
| Operatives | 25.1 | 23.1 | 22.9 | 22.7 | 25.4 | 25.7 | 25.7 | 29.6 | 27.8 | 29.9 | 36.9 | 30.7 |
| Private household workers | 2.0 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.8 |
| Service workers exc. private household | 10.7 | 14.3 | 14.2 | 13.9 | 12.9 | 11.9 | 12.3 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 9.6 | 8.9 | 11.8 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 1.5 | 2.4 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 9.7 | 11.2 | 13.4 | 13.8 | 15.8 | 17.1 | 16.0 | 16.5 | 15.7 |
| Persons with no previous work experience | 11.8 | 11.4 | 12.1 | 12.8 | 13.1 | 13.0 | 11.3 | 9.1 | 11.1 | 8.6 | 6.2 | 8.3 |

[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Percent distribution of the occupation groups for 1957 is based on average of data for January, April, July, and October.

# Table A-20. Nonagricultural Workers on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67; numbers in thousands]

| Item | 1967 | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [2] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | On full-time schedules [3] | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 56,865 | 56,348 | 56,410 | 54,692 | 52,872 | 51,439 | 50,619 | 49,427 | 49,542 | 48,865 | 47,077 | 48,617 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 67.8 | 68.1 | 68.1 | 68.9 | 69.3 | 69.6 | 69.6 | 69.6 | 69.7 | 70.1 | 69.8 | 70.3 |
| Under 18 years | .5 | .6 | .7 | .6 | .6 | .5 | .5 | .5 | .6 | .5 | .5 | .6 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 8.7 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.2 | 7.9 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 7.2 | 6.6 | 6.8 |
| 25 to 44 years | 32.3 | 32.4 | 32.4 | 33.1 | 33.8 | 34.3 | 34.6 | 34.9 | 35.0 | 35.6 | 35.8 | 36.1 |
| 45 to 64 years | 24.5 | 24.5 | 24.5 | 24.7 | 25.0 | 25.1 | 24.8 | 24.7 | 24.4 | 24.5 | 24.4 | 24.1 |
| 65 years and over | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.6 |
| Female | 32.2 | 31.9 | 31.9 | 31.1 | 30.7 | 30.4 | 30.4 | 30.4 | 30.3 | 29.9 | 30.2 | 29.7 |
| Under 18 years | .3 | .3 | .4 | .3 | .3 | .3 | .4 | .4 | .4 | .4 | .4 | .4 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 6.9 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 5.5 |
| 25 to 44 years | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.7 | 13.1 | 13.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 11.8 | 11.7 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.5 | 11.4 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 11.1 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 9.9 |
| 65 years and over | .8 | .8 | .8 | .8 | .8 | .8 | .8 | .9 | .9 | .8 | .8 | .8 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 89.8 | 89.8 | 89.8 | 90.1 | 90.3 | 90.6 | 90.8 | 90.9 | 90.8 | 91.2 | 91.2 | 91.0 |
| Male | 61.4 | 61.7 | 61.7 | 62.6 | 63.2 | 63.6 | 63.7 | 63.8 | 63.8 | 64.3 | 64.2 | 64.4 |
| Female | 28.4 | 28.1 | 28.1 | 27.4 | 27.2 | 27.0 | 27.1 | 27.1 | 27.0 | 26.8 | 27.0 | 26.7 |
| Nonwhite | 10.2 | 10.2 | 10.2 | 9.9 | 9.7 | 9.4 | 9.2 | 9.1 | 9.2 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 9.0 |
| Male | 6.4 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 6.3 | 6.2 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.9 |
| Female | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.1 |
| SEX AND MARITAL STATUS | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 8.4 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.5 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 8.5 | 9.0 |
| Married, wife present | 56.1 | 56.3 | 56.3 | 56.9 | 57.6 | 57.8 | 57.9 | 57.6 | 57.4 | 58.0 | 57.9 | 57.7 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.5 |
| Female: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.1 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 7.3 | 7.5 | 7.3 | 7.9 | 8.0 |
| Married, husband present | 18.0 | 17.6 | 17.6 | 17.1 | 16.9 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.2 | 16.0 | 16.0 | 15.7 | 15.2 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 7.0 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 6.8 | 7.0 | 6.8 | 6.9 | 6.8 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.5 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wage and salary workers | 92.4 | 90.9 | 90.9 | 90.4 | 90.0 | 89.9 | 89.5 | 89.0 | 89.0 | 88.8 | 88.7 | 88.9 |
| Construction | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 6.0 |
| Manufacturing | 32.1 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 31.1 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 30.1 | 29.5 | 29.9 | 29.9 | 28.9 | 31.0 |
| Durable goods | 19.3 | 19.0 | 19.0 | 18.1 | 17.8 | 17.9 | 17.3 | 16.7 | 17.0 | 17.3 | 16.5 | 18.3 |
| Nondurable goods | 12.8 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 12.9 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 12.9 | 12.6 | 12.4 | 12.7 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.3 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 7.7 | 7.8 | 8.1 | 7.9 | 8.1 | 8.4 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 15.3 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 15.4 | 15.4 | 15.4 | 15.4 | 15.7 | 16.0 | 16.2 | 16.4 | 16.0 |
| Finance and service | 24.4 | 23.5 | 23.5 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 23.1 | 23.0 | 23.0 | 22.2 | 21.8 | 22.1 | 20.7 |
| Other industries [5] | 7.5 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 7.0 | 6.9 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 7.6 | 9.1 | 9.1 | 9.6 | 10.0 | 10.1 | 10.5 | 11.0 | 11.0 | 11.2 | 11.3 | 11.1 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A–20. Nonagricultural Workers on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–67—Continued

| Item | 1967 | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [2] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | On voluntary part-time schedules [6] | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 8,048 | 7,441 | 8,256 | 7,607 | 7,263 | 6,808 | 6,597 | 6,148 | 5,815 | 5,569 | 5,215 | 5,181 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 32.9 | 32.7 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 34.8 | 34.3 | 34.1 | 33.4 | 33.9 | 35.0 | 34.7 | 34.5 |
| Under 18 years | 9.7 | 9.9 | 14.4 | 14.5 | 14.3 | 13.4 | 13.7 | 13.0 | 13.2 | 13.8 | 14.1 | 14.2 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 10.8 | 10.4 | 9.3 | 8.7 | 7.8 | 7.8 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 6.6 | 6.3 |
| 25 to 44 years | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.5 |
| 45 to 64 years | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 4.4 |
| 65 years and over | 6.1 | 6.1 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 6.0 | 6.1 |
| Female | 67.1 | 67.3 | 65.0 | 65.1 | 65.2 | 65.7 | 65.9 | 66.6 | 66.1 | 65.0 | 65.3 | 65.5 |
| Under 18 years | 7.8 | 8.0 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 11.2 | 10.5 | 10.6 | 10.9 | 10.2 | 10.8 | 10.3 | 10.1 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 11.0 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 8.4 | 7.9 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.3 | 6.7 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 6.4 |
| 25 to 44 years | 23.7 | 24.2 | 21.8 | 22.1 | 22.2 | 23.2 | 23.5 | 23.6 | 23.8 | 23.3 | 23.9 | 24.1 |
| 45 to 64 years | 19.8 | 20.4 | 18.3 | 18.7 | 19.3 | 19.6 | 19.5 | 19.8 | 20.2 | 20.1 | 20.1 | 20.3 |
| 65 years and over | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 4.6 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 89.4 | 88.9 | 89.5 | 89.9 | 89.5 | 89.5 | 90.1 | 90.6 | 89.5 | 89.5 | 89.3 | 88.5 |
| Male | 30.0 | 29.7 | 31.9 | 32.1 | 31.8 | 31.5 | 31.8 | 31.2 | 31.2 | 32.3 | 32.1 | 31.8 |
| Female | 59.4 | 59.2 | 57.6 | 57.8 | 57.6 | 58.0 | 58.3 | 59.3 | 58.3 | 57.2 | 57.2 | 56.7 |
| Nonwhite | 10.6 | 11.1 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 9.9 | 9.4 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 10.7 | 11.5 |
| Male | 2.9 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.7 |
| Female | 7.7 | 8.1 | 7.4 | 7.2 | 7.6 | 7.7 | 7.6 | 7.2 | 7.7 | 7.9 | 8.1 | 8.8 |
| SEX AND MARITAL STATUS | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 20.6 | 20.2 | 23.7 | 23.4 | 22.4 | 21.4 | 21.4 | 20.7 | 20.5 | 21.5 | 21.2 | 21.3 |
| Married, wife present | 10.7 | 10.9 | 9.8 | 10.2 | 10.6 | 11.1 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 11.5 | 11.5 | 11.4 | 11.3 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 1.7 |
| Female: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 16.6 | 16.4 | 19.1 | 18.1 | 18.0 | 17.4 | 17.3 | 17.4 | 16.2 | 17.1 | 16.7 | 16.9 |
| Married, husband present | 40.8 | 41.1 | 37.1 | 38.0 | 37.7 | 38.3 | 39.0 | 39.2 | 39.6 | 37.9 | 38.5 | 38.3 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 9.7 | 9.8 | 8.8 | 8.9 | 9.5 | 10.0 | 9.6 | 9.9 | 10.3 | 10.0 | 10.1 | 10.4 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wage and salary workers | 89.0 | 87.7 | 87.6 | 86.3 | 86.2 | 85.7 | 85.4 | 84.2 | 84.3 | 84.0 | 83.8 | 84.4 |
| Construction | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.7 |
| Manufacturing | 6.4 | 6.4 | 7.1 | 6.7 | 7.2 | 7.7 | 8.0 | 7.5 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 7.1 | 7.4 |
| Durable goods | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 2.0 |
| Nondurable goods | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.7 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 5.4 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 2.7 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.4 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 29.9 | 29.0 | 27.6 | 27.4 | 25.9 | 26.2 | 25.3 | 25.0 | 26.3 | 26.0 | 26.2 | 26.8 |
| Finance and service | 45.8 | 45.1 | 46.2 | 46.0 | 46.9 | 45.4 | 46.3 | 45.6 | 43.9 | 44.7 | 44.4 | 43.9 |
| Other industries [5] | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 11.0 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 13.8 | 13.8 | 14.3 | 14.6 | 15.8 | 15.7 | 16.0 | 16.2 | 15.6 |

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the item "under 18 years" referred to persons 14 to 17 years.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Includes persons who worked 35 hours or more during the survey week and those who usually work full time but worked part time because of illness, bad weather, holidays, personal business, or other temporary noneconomic reasons.

[4] Data not available for the usual 20- to 24-year age group because the breakdown for the 18- and 19-year age group is not readily available from 1957.

[5] Includes mining, forestry, and fisheries, and also public administration.

[6] Includes persons who wanted only part-time work.

## Table A–21. Persons on Part Time for Economic Reasons,[1] by Type of Industry: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67]

| Industry | 1967 | 1966 [2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [3] | 1961 | 1960 [3] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 2,163 | 1,894 | 1,960 | 2,209 | 2,455 | 2,620 | 2,661 | 3,142 | 2,860 | 2,640 | 3,280 | 2,469 |
| Agriculture | 250 | 230 | 246 | 281 | 318 | 332 | 325 | 329 | 300 | 304 | 327 | 300 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 1,913 | 1,664 | 1,714 | 1,928 | 2,137 | 2,288 | 2,336 | 2,813 | 2,560 | 2,336 | 2,953 | 2,169 |

[1] Includes persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, inability to find full-time work, etc.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

## Table A–22. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons,[1] by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67]

| Year | Both sexes | Male | | | | | | Female | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Under 18 years [2] | 18 to 24 years [3] | 25 to 44 years | 45 to 64 years | 65 years and over | Total | Under 18 years [2] | 18 to 24 years [3] | 25 to 44 years | 45 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
| 1957 | 2,169 | 1,263 | 99 | 181 | 488 | 418 | 76 | 906 | 58 | 117 | 383 | 315 | 32 |
| 1958 | 2,953 | 1,793 | 114 | 257 | 727 | 607 | 88 | 1,161 | 57 | 166 | 482 | 413 | 42 |
| 1959 | 2,336 | 1,320 | 115 | 223 | 494 | 419 | 67 | 1,016 | 62 | 140 | 405 | 367 | 41 |
| 1960 [4] | 2,560 | 1,476 | 114 | 251 | 552 | 489 | 70 | 1,083 | 75 | 167 | 420 | 385 | 36 |
| 1961 | 2,813 | 1,625 | 127 | 305 | 598 | 527 | 66 | 1,188 | 65 | 178 | 460 | 443 | 40 |
| 1962 [4] | 2,336 | 1,308 | 113 | 243 | 476 | 422 | 55 | 1,029 | 65 | 171 | 386 | 372 | 34 |
| 1963 | 2,288 | 1,263 | 106 | 255 | 436 | 407 | 59 | 1,025 | 65 | 183 | 384 | 355 | 38 |
| 1964 | 2,137 | 1,154 | 106 | 235 | 398 | 368 | 49 | 982 | 60 | 177 | 350 | 359 | 37 |
| 1965 | 1,928 | 1,005 | 108 | 226 | 322 | 310 | 40 | 923 | 55 | 205 | 306 | 325 | 30 |
| 1966 | 1,714 | 896 | 108 | 195 | 277 | 273 | 43 | 818 | 65 | 164 | 286 | 279 | 27 |
| 1966 [5] | 1,664 | 863 | 75 | 195 | 277 | 273 | 43 | 801 | 47 | 164 | 286 | 279 | 27 |
| 1967 | 1,913 | 987 | 81 | 214 | 331 | 310 | 51 | 925 | 52 | 199 | 312 | 331 | 33 |

[1] See footnote 1, table A–21.

[2] Data refer to persons 14 to 17 years for the period 1957–66, and persons 16 and 17 years beginning 1966.

[3] See footnote 4, table A–20.

[4] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[5] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

## Table A–23. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966–67; numbers in thousands]

| Item | 1967 | 1966[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962[2] | 1961 | 1960[2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Usually work full time[3] | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 1,060 | 871 | 873 | 897 | 986 | 1,069 | 1,049 | 1,297 | 1,243 | 1,032 | 1,638 | 1,183 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 59.8 | 60.9 | 60.9 | 60.2 | 61.0 | 63.0 | 64.7 | 66.1 | 68.0 | 65.8 | 68.7 | 65.0 |
| Under 18 years | 1.8 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.3 | .9 | 1.3 |
| 18 to 24 years[4] | 12.1 | 13.6 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 11.8 | 11.6 | 9.7 | 10.5 | 10.6 | 10.0 | 8.1 | 8.9 |
| 25 to 44 years | 23.6 | 23.3 | 23.2 | 24.1 | 26.1 | 26.7 | 28.1 | 29.0 | 30.1 | 31.2 | 32.2 | 30.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 20.1 | 20.4 | 20.4 | 20.2 | 19.9 | 21.6 | 22.9 | 23.9 | 24.5 | 21.4 | 25.0 | 22.4 |
| 65 years and over | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.6 | 2.2 |
| Female | 40.2 | 39.1 | 39.1 | 39.8 | 39.0 | 37.0 | 35.3 | 33.9 | 32.0 | 34.2 | 31.3 | 35.0 |
| Under 18 years | .7 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.0 | .6 | .8 | .9 | .5 | .9 | .8 | .5 | 1.0 |
| 18 to 24 years[4] | 8.6 | 8.4 | 8.4 | 8.7 | 6.9 | 7.0 | 6.1 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 4.3 | 4.4 |
| 25 to 44 years | 15.6 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 15.5 | 16.2 | 16.1 | 15.6 | 15.1 | 14.4 | 16.6 | 14.8 | 16.9 |
| 45 to 64 years | 14.3 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 13.9 | 14.6 | 12.2 | 11.7 | 12.9 | 11.3 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 11.9 |
| 65 years and over | 1.0 | .9 | .9 | .7 | .7 | .8 | 1.0 | .7 | .6 | .7 | .7 | .8 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 81.1 | 81.6 | 81.6 | 81.7 | 82.2 | 83.6 | 84.1 | 84.8 | 83.2 | 82.3 | 84.4 | 82.7 |
| Male | 47.7 | 49.1 | 49.1 | 48.7 | 49.8 | 52.0 | 54.1 | 56.0 | 56.3 | 54.1 | 58.1 | 53.9 |
| Female | 33.4 | 32.5 | 32.4 | 33.0 | 32.4 | 31.7 | 30.0 | 28.8 | 26.9 | 28.2 | 26.3 | 28.8 |
| Nonwhite | 18.9 | 18.4 | 18.4 | 18.3 | 17.8 | 16.4 | 15.9 | 15.2 | 16.8 | 17.7 | 15.6 | 17.3 |
| Male | 12.1 | 11.8 | 11.9 | 11.5 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 10.7 | 10.2 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 10.6 | 11.2 |
| Female | 6.8 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 6.0 | 5.0 | 6.1 |
| SEX AND MARITAL STATUS | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 12.9 | 14.1 | 14.2 | 14.4 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 11.2 | 11.4 | 11.5 | 11.8 | 9.7 | 11.4 |
| Married, wife present | 42.1 | 42.0 | 42.0 | 41.1 | 44.2 | 45.3 | 48.8 | 50.0 | 51.1 | 49.4 | 54.7 | 49.6 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.1 |
| Female: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 6.9 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 6.7 | 6.1 | 6.3 | 6.0 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 5.8 |
| Married, husband present | 24.6 | 23.7 | 23.7 | 23.5 | 24.7 | 23.3 | 20.8 | 20.6 | 19.3 | 20.3 | 19.1 | 20.4 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 8.7 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 9.6 | 8.1 | 7.5 | 8.5 | 8.0 | 7.2 | 8.3 | 7.2 | 8.7 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wage and salary workers | 89.2 | 89.2 | 89.2 | 88.7 | 89.1 | 88.2 | 89.7 | 89.2 | 90.7 | 90.6 | 91.7 | 91.1 |
| Construction | 13.8 | 15.5 | 15.5 | 14.6 | 15.7 | 15.5 | 15.4 | 14.6 | 14.3 | 14.8 | 10.4 | 12.8 |
| Manufacturing | 40.8 | 35.6 | 35.6 | 37.2 | 37.6 | 39.1 | 39.3 | 44.9 | 46.7 | 40.8 | 53.1 | 50.0 |
| Durable goods | 19.1 | 13.8 | 13.8 | 14.3 | 13.4 | 15.6 | 16.2 | 20.0 | 23.5 | 18.3 | 29.5 | 22.7 |
| Nondurable goods | 21.7 | 21.8 | 21.9 | 23.0 | 24.2 | 23.5 | 23.1 | 24.8 | 23.2 | 22.5 | 23.6 | 27.3 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 5.9 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 4.9 | 5.1 | 6.3 | 5.1 | 5.7 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 12.2 | 14.0 | 14.1 | 12.9 | 11.4 | 12.1 | 11.9 | 9.7 | 9.0 | 12.2 | 8.9 | 9.1 |
| Finance and service | 13.9 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 15.9 | 16.0 | 13.3 | 13.9 | 11.6 | 11.5 | 12.8 | 10.3 | 9.8 |
| Other industries[5] | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 1.8 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 3.6 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 10.8 | 10.8 | 10.8 | 11.3 | 10.9 | 11.8 | 10.3 | 10.8 | 9.3 | 9.4 | 8.3 | 8.9 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table A–23. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–67—Continued

| Item | 1967 | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [2] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Usually work part time [6] | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 853 | 793 | 841 | 1,031 | 1,151 | 1,219 | 1,287 | 1,516 | 1,317 | 1,304 | 1,315 | 986 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| SEX AND AGE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 41.4 | 41.9 | 43.2 | 45.2 | 48.1 | 48.4 | 48.9 | 50.7 | 47.9 | 49.2 | 50.8 | 50.1 |
| Under 18 years | 7.3 | 7.4 | 10.7 | 9.1 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 7.7 | 7.5 | 7.6 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 8.5 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 10.0 | 9.7 | 9.1 | 10.5 | 10.3 | 10.8 | 10.9 | 11.2 | 9.0 | 9.2 | 9.5 | 7.7 |
| 25 to 44 years | 9.4 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 10.3 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 13.4 | 14.7 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 15.2 | 13.3 |
| 45 to 64 years | 11.4 | 11.9 | 11.3 | 12.5 | 14.9 | 14.4 | 14.1 | 14.4 | 14.1 | 15.2 | 15.1 | 15.5 |
| 65 years and over | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 5.1 |
| Female | 58.6 | 58.1 | 56.8 | 54.8 | 51.9 | 51.6 | 51.1 | 49.3 | 52.1 | 50.8 | 49.2 | 49.9 |
| Under 18 years | 5.2 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 4.5 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 3.9 | 4.9 | 4.1 | 3.7 | 4.7 |
| 18 to 24 years [4] | 12.7 | 11.4 | 10.8 | 12.3 | 9.5 | 8.9 | 8.3 | 7.7 | 8.1 | 6.7 | 7.2 | 6.6 |
| 25 to 44 years | 17.1 | 18.1 | 17.1 | 16.4 | 16.5 | 17.4 | 17.2 | 17.4 | 18.3 | 18.0 | 18.2 | 18.6 |
| 45 to 64 years | 21.0 | 21.4 | 20.2 | 19.4 | 18.7 | 18.4 | 19.3 | 18.2 | 18.5 | 19.4 | 17.7 | 17.7 |
| 65 years and over | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.3 |
| COLOR AND SEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 67.8 | 66.3 | 67.4 | 65.6 | 65.3 | 66.2 | 65.2 | 68.3 | 67.5 | 66.4 | 68.4 | 66.8 |
| Male | 29.9 | 30.2 | 31.7 | 32.3 | 33.0 | 34.4 | 34.3 | 37.4 | 35.4 | 35.4 | 37.7 | 37.0 |
| Female | 37.9 | 36.1 | 35.7 | 33.3 | 32.3 | 31.8 | 30.9 | 30.9 | 32.1 | 31.0 | 30.7 | 29.8 |
| Nonwhite | 32.2 | 33.7 | 32.6 | 34.4 | 34.7 | 33.8 | 34.8 | 31.7 | 32.5 | 33.6 | 31.6 | 33.2 |
| Male | 11.6 | 11.7 | 11.4 | 12.8 | 15.0 | 14.0 | 14.5 | 13.3 | 12.5 | 13.7 | 13.0 | 13.1 |
| Female | 20.6 | 22.0 | 21.2 | 21.6 | 19.7 | 19.9 | 20.3 | 18.5 | 20.0 | 19.9 | 18.6 | 20.1 |
| SEX AND MARITAL STATUS | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 19.4 | 20.2 | 22.6 | 21.6 | 21.7 | 20.7 | 21.1 | 20.8 | 19.5 | 20.3 | 19.8 | 19.7 |
| Married, wife present | 17.9 | 17.1 | 16.2 | 18.5 | 20.3 | 22.0 | 22.4 | 24.7 | 23.5 | 23.9 | 26.6 | 25.2 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 4.2 | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.4 | 5.2 |
| Female: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 16.1 | 14.4 | 15.6 | 15.6 | 13.8 | 12.9 | 12.7 | 11.9 | 13.0 | 11.4 | 10.8 | 11.9 |
| Married, husband present | 26.6 | 25.1 | 23.7 | 23.5 | 22.1 | 22.9 | 23.0 | 22.6 | 22.9 | 22.9 | 23.5 | 23.1 |
| Widowed, divorced, separated | 15.8 | 18.6 | 17.6 | 15.8 | 16.1 | 15.8 | 15.4 | 14.8 | 16.2 | 16.7 | 15.0 | 15.0 |
| INDUSTRY GROUP | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wage and salary workers | 90.9 | 91.9 | 92.2 | 91.9 | 91.5 | 91.2 | 91.1 | 91.3 | 92.1 | 92.6 | 92.5 | 92.3 |
| Construction | 6.2 | 6.2 | 6.1 | 7.1 | 8.3 | 8.0 | 7.7 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 8.6 | 7.9 | 7.6 |
| Manufacturing | 10.6 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 8.9 | 9.9 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 13.5 | 12.9 | 11.3 | 15.8 | 14.6 |
| Durable goods | 3.5 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 4.8 | 4.3 | 6.8 | 6.7 |
| Nondurable goods | 7.0 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 6.5 | 7.1 | 6.3 | 8.1 | 8.1 | 7.0 | 9.0 | 7.9 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 3.5 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 3.6 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.5 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 23.8 | 25.2 | 25.0 | 24.2 | 22.5 | 22.1 | 22.3 | 21.1 | 21.9 | 21.1 | 20.0 | 20.9 |
| Finance and service | 44.7 | 46.0 | 47.0 | 46.5 | 44.1 | 44.1 | 43.2 | 41.8 | 42.9 | 44.3 | 41.1 | 41.6 |
| Other industries [5] | 2.1 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.1 |
| Self-employed and unpaid family workers | 9.1 | 8.1 | 7.8 | 8.1 | 8.5 | 8.8 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 7.9 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 7.7 |

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the item "under 18 years" referred to persons 14 to 17 years.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Mainly persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, etc.

[4] See footnote 4, table A–20.

[5] See footnote 5, table A–20.

[6] Mainly persons who could find only part-time work.

## Table B–1. Employment Status of the Population,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–67

[Numbers in thousands]

| Marital status and date | Male | | | | | | Female | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Population | Labor force | | | | | Population | Labor force | | | | |
| | | Total | | Employed | Unemployed | | | Total | | Employed | Unemployed | |
| | | Number | Percent of population | | Number | Percent of civilian labor force | | Number | Percent of population | | Number | Percent of civilian labor force |
| **SINGLE** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 14,760 | 9,375 | 63.5 | 8,500 | 849 | 9.1 | 12,078 | 6,181 | 51.2 | 5,991 | 190 | 3.1 |
| April 1948 | 14,734 | 9,440 | 64.1 | 8,699 | (2) | .......... | 11,623 | 5,943 | 51.1 | 5,697 | 246 | 4.1 |
| April 1949 | 13,952 | 8,957 | 64.2 | 8,048 | 863 | 9.7 | 11,174 | 5,682 | 50.9 | 5,395 | 287 | 5.1 |
| March 1950 | 14,212 | 8,898 | 62.6 | 7,638 | 1,188 | 13.5 | 11,126 | 5,621 | 50.5 | 5,272 | 349 | 6.2 |
| April 1951 | 12,984 | 8,036 | 61.9 | 7,550 | 427 | 5.4 | 10,946 | 5,430 | 49.6 | 5,228 | 202 | 3.7 |
| April 1952 | 12,868 | 7,836 | 60.9 | 7,254 | 444 | 5.8 | 11,066 | 5,532 | 50.0 | 5,360 | 168 | 3.0 |
| April 1953 [3] | 13,000 | 7,825 | 60.2 | 7,347 | 390 | 5.0 | 10,774 | 5,223 | 48.5 | 5,089 | 130 | 2.5 |
| April 1954 | 13,004 | 7,924 | 60.9 | 7,099 | 697 | 8.9 | 11,043 | 5,412 | 49.0 | 5,095 | 317 | 5.9 |
| April 1955 | 13,522 | 8,276 | 61.2 | 7,495 | 653 | 8.0 | 10,962 | 5,087 | 46.4 | 4,865 | 222 | 4.4 |
| March 1956 | 13,516 | 8,086 | 59.8 | 7,400 | 625 | 7.8 | 11,126 | 5,167 | 46.4 | 4,919 | 248 | 4.8 |
| March 1957 [4] | 13,754 | 7,958 | 57.9 | 7,166 | 716 | 9.1 | 11,487 | 5,378 | 46.8 | 5,139 | 239 | 4.4 |
| March 1958 | 14,331 | 8,174 | 57.0 | 6,959 | 1,122 | 13.9 | 11,822 | 5,365 | 45.4 | 5,078 | 287 | 5.3 |
| March 1959 | 14,768 | 8,416 | 57.0 | 7,263 | 1,083 | 13.0 | 11,884 | 5,162 | 43.4 | 4,832 | 330 | 6.4 |
| March 1960 [3] | 15,274 | 8,473 | 55.5 | 7,327 | 1,067 | 12.7 | 12,252 | 5,401 | 44.1 | 5,079 | 322 | 6.0 |
| March 1961 | 15,886 | 8,837 | 55.6 | 7,533 | 1,246 | 14.2 | 12,764 | 5,663 | 44.4 | 5,235 | 428 | 7.6 |
| March 1962 [3] | 15,708 | 8,121 | 51.7 | 7,134 | 922 | 11.4 | 13,134 | 5,481 | 41.7 | 5,096 | 385 | 7.0 |
| March 1963 | 16,361 | 8,267 | 50.5 | 7,059 | 1,124 | 13.7 | 13,692 | 5,614 | 41.0 | 5,218 | 396 | 7.1 |
| March 1964 | 16,968 | 8,617 | 50.8 | 7,428 | 1,085 | 12.7 | 14,132 | 5,781 | 40.9 | 5,366 | 415 | 7.2 |
| March 1965 | 17,338 | 8,719 | 50.3 | 7,765 | 898 | 10.3 | 14,607 | 5,912 | 40.5 | 5,491 | 421 | 7.1 |
| March 1966 | 17,684 | 8,781 | 49.7 | 7,914 | 799 | 9.1 | 14,981 | 6,106 | 40.8 | 5,729 | 377 | 6.2 |
| March 1967 | 17,754 | 9,001 | 50.7 | 8,151 | 706 | 7.8 | 15,311 | 6,323 | 41.3 | 5,958 | 365 | 5.8 |
| March 1967 [5] | 13,967 | 8,350 | 59.7 | 7,553 | 654 | 7.8 | 11,664 | 5,915 | 50.7 | 5,566 | 349 | 5.9 |
| **MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 33,399 | 30,927 | 92.6 | 29,865 | 837 | 2.7 | 33,399 | 6,676 | 20.0 | 6,502 | 174 | 2.6 |
| April 1948 | 34,289 | 31,713 | 92.5 | 30,563 | (2) | .......... | 34,289 | 7,553 | 22.0 | 7,369 | 184 | 2.4 |
| April 1949 | 35,323 | 32,559 | 92.2 | 31,101 | 1,115 | 3.5 | 35,323 | 7,959 | 22.5 | 7,637 | 322 | 4.0 |
| March 1950 | 35,925 | 32,912 | 91.6 | 30,938 | 1,503 | 4.6 | 35,925 | 8,550 | 23.8 | 8,038 | 512 | 6.0 |
| April 1951 | 35,998 | 32,998 | 91.7 | 31,968 | 480 | 1.5 | 35,998 | 9,086 | 25.2 | 8,750 | 336 | 3.7 |
| April 1952 | 36,510 | 33,482 | 91.7 | 32,222 | 464 | 1.4 | 36,510 | 9,222 | 25.3 | 8,946 | 266 | 2.9 |
| April 1953 [3] | 37,106 | 33,950 | 91.5 | 33,540 | 564 | 1.7 | 37,106 | 9,763 | 26.3 | 9,525 | 238 | 2.4 |
| April 1954 | 37,346 | 34,153 | 91.5 | 32,139 | 1,328 | 4.0 | 37,346 | 9,923 | 26.6 | 9,388 | 535 | 5.4 |
| April 1955 | 37,570 | 34,064 | 90.7 | 32,207 | 1,171 | 3.5 | 37,570 | 10,423 | 27.7 | 10,021 | 402 | 3.9 |
| March 1956 | 38,306 | 34,855 | 91.0 | 33,046 | 1,016 | 3.0 | 38,306 | 11,126 | 29.0 | 10,676 | 450 | 4.0 |
| March 1957 [4] | 38,940 | 35,280 | 90.6 | 33,536 | 1,024 | 3.0 | 38,940 | 11,529 | 29.6 | 11,036 | 493 | 4.3 |
| March 1958 | 39,182 | 35,327 | 90.2 | 32,283 | 2,267 | 6.6 | 39,182 | 11,826 | 30.2 | 10,993 | 833 | 7.0 |
| March 1959 | 39,529 | 35,437 | 89.6 | 32,928 | 1,583 | 4.6 | 39,529 | 12,205 | 30.9 | 11,516 | 689 | 5.6 |
| March 1960 [3] | 40,205 | 35,757 | 88.9 | 33,179 | 1,564 | 4.5 | 40,205 | 12,253 | 30.5 | 11,587 | 666 | 5.4 |
| March 1961 | 40,524 | 36,201 | 89.3 | 33,060 | 2,137 | 6.1 | 40,524 | 13,266 | 32.7 | 12,337 | 929 | 7.0 |
| March 1962 [3] | 41,218 | 36,396 | 88.3 | 33,883 | 1,605 | 4.5 | 41,218 | 13,485 | 32.7 | 12,716 | 769 | 5.7 |
| March 1963 | 41,705 | 36,740 | 88.1 | 34,305 | 1,567 | 4.4 | 41,705 | 14,061 | 33.7 | 13,303 | 758 | 5.4 |
| March 1964 | 42,045 | 36,898 | 87.8 | 34,667 | 1,310 | 3.6 | 42,045 | 14,461 | 34.4 | 13,626 | 835 | 5.8 |
| March 1965 | 42,367 | 37,140 | 87.7 | 35,185 | 1,088 | 2.9 | 42,367 | 14,708 | 34.7 | 13,959 | 749 | 5.1 |
| March 1966 | 42,826 | 37,346 | 87.2 | 35,685 | 888 | 2.4 | 42,826 | 15,178 | 35.4 | 14,623 | 555 | 3.7 |
| March 1967 | 43,225 | 37,596 | 87.0 | 35,964 | 792 | 2.1 | 43,225 | 15,908 | 36.8 | 15,189 | 719 | 4.5 |
| March 1967 [5] | 43,225 | 37,588 | 87.0 | 35,963 | 790 | 2.1 | 43,225 | 15,908 | 36.8 | 15,189 | 719 | 4.5 |
| **WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 4,201 | 2,760 | 65.7 | 2,546 | 211 | 7.7 | 9,270 | 3,466 | 37.4 | 3,309 | 157 | 4.5 |
| April 1948 | 4,204 | 2,689 | 64.0 | 2,539 | (2) | .......... | 9,452 | 3,659 | 38.7 | 3,463 | 196 | 5.4 |
| April 1949 | 4,174 | 2,545 | 61.0 | 2,314 | 227 | 8.9 | 9,505 | 3,526 | 37.1 | 3,324 | 202 | 5.7 |
| March 1950 | 4,149 | 2,616 | 63.1 | 2,301 | 311 | 11.9 | 9,584 | 3,624 | 37.8 | 3,364 | 260 | 7.2 |
| April 1951 | 4,438 | 2,754 | 62.1 | 2,616 | 121 | 4.4 | 10,410 | 4,086 | 39.2 | 3,910 | 176 | 4.3 |
| April 1952 | 4,186 | 2,602 | 62.2 | 2,422 | 140 | 5.5 | 10,456 | 4,058 | 38.8 | 3,928 | 130 | 3.2 |
| April 1953 [3] | 4,678 | 3,060 | 65.4 | 2,870 | 150 | 5.0 | 11,060 | 4,319 | 39.0 | 4,205 | 112 | 2.6 |
| April 1954 | 4,947 | 3,081 | 62.3 | 2,755 | 318 | 10.3 | 11,153 | 4,391 | 39.4 | 4,120 | 269 | 6.1 |
| April 1955 | 4,902 | 2,976 | 60.7 | 2,699 | 269 | 9.1 | 11,718 | 4,643 | 39.6 | 4,398 | 245 | 5.3 |
| March 1956 | 4,922 | 3,001 | 61.0 | 2,737 | 246 | 8.2 | 11,543 | 4,549 | 39.4 | 4,300 | 249 | 5.5 |
| March 1957 [4] | 4,778 | 2,795 | 58.5 | 2,571 | 211 | 7.6 | 11,436 | 4,617 | 40.4 | 4,417 | 200 | 4.3 |
| March 1958 | 4,949 | 2,903 | 58.7 | 2,524 | 354 | 12.3 | 11,780 | 4,810 | 40.8 | 4,474 | 336 | 7.0 |
| March 1959 | 4,961 | 2,967 | 59.8 | 2,651 | 305 | 10.3 | 12,148 | 5,009 | 41.2 | 4,637 | 372 | 7.4 |
| March 1960 [3] | 4,794 | 2,845 | 59.3 | 2,542 | 279 | 9.9 | 12,150 | 4,861 | 40.0 | 4,553 | 308 | 6.3 |
| March 1961 | 4,828 | 2,820 | 58.6 | 2,490 | 326 | 11.6 | 12,559 | 5,270 | 42.0 | 4,841 | 429 | 8.1 |
| March 1962 [3] | 5,203 | 2,989 | 57.4 | 2,629 | 355 | 11.9 | 12,814 | 5,012 | 39.1 | 4,681 | 331 | 6.6 |
| March 1963 | 5,174 | 2,932 | 56.7 | 2,598 | 322 | 11.0 | 12,995 | 5,000 | 38.5 | 4,665 | 335 | 6.7 |
| March 1964 | 5,205 | 2,933 | 56.3 | 2,635 | 286 | 9.8 | 13,326 | 5,157 | 38.7 | 4,794 | 363 | 7.0 |
| March 1965 | 5,438 | 3,032 | 55.8 | 2,724 | 297 | 9.8 | 13,717 | 5,332 | 38.9 | 5,044 | 288 | 5.4 |
| March 1966 | 5,278 | 2,959 | 56.1 | 2,794 | 160 | 5.4 | 14,021 | 5,536 | 39.5 | 5,278 | 258 | 4.7 |
| March 1967 | 5,525 | 3,027 | 54.8 | 2,819 | 190 | 6.3 | 14,551 | 5,724 | 39.3 | 5,473 | 251 | 4.4 |
| March 1967 [5] | 5,512 | 3,025 | 54.9 | 2,817 | 190 | 6.3 | 14,521 | 5,722 | 39.4 | 5,471 | 251 | 4.4 |

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[1] Prior to the raising of the lower age limit in 1967, data included all persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian population (including institutional); beginning 1967, the lower age limit was raised to include only persons 16 years and over. Male members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post are included in the male population and labor force figures.

[2] Not available.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[4] Beginning 1957, data are not strictly comparable with earlier data because of changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

[5] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

# Table B–2. Labor Force Participation Rates,[1] by Marital Status, Sex, and Age, 1947–67

| Marital status and date | Male | | | | | | | | | Female | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total [2] | Under 20 years [2] | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 64 years | | | 65 years and over | Total [2] | Under 20 years [2] | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 64 years | | | 65 years and over |
| | | | | | | Total | 45 to 54 | 55 to 64 | | | | | | | Total | 45 to 54 | 55 to 64 | |
| SINGLE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 63.5 | (3) | (3) | 85.0 | 85.5 | 79.1 | (3) | (3) | 40.2 | 51.2 | (3) | (3) | 78.2 | 79.4 | 66.3 | (3) | (3) | 22.7 |
| April 1948 | 64.1 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | 51.1 | 29.3 | 78.8 | 81.8 | 78.1 | 61.6 | (3) | (3) | 23.2 |
| April 1949 | 64.2 | 45.3 | 77.1 | 86.6 | 85.1 | 75.1 | (3) | (3) | 42.1 | 50.9 | 28.8 | 75.8 | 81.0 | 80.4 | 66.8 | (3) | (3) | 24.3 |
| March 1950 | 62.6 | 42.1 | 78.7 | 84.1 | 83.6 | 74.1 | (3) | (3) | 41.0 | 50.5 | 26.3 | 74.9 | 84.6 | 83.6 | 70.6 | (3) | (3) | 23.8 |
| April 1951 | 61.9 | 42.7 | 77.1 | 84.3 | 83.0 | 78.5 | (3) | (3) | 36.8 | 49.6 | 28.4 | 75.6 | 82.0 | 81.7 | 65.0 | (3) | (3) | 18.9 |
| April 1952 | 60.9 | 40.7 | 79.2 | 86.8 | 83.7 | 76.6 | 85.0 | 66.2 | 28.2 | 50.0 | 28.0 | 75.9 | 82.0 | 78.4 | 71.9 | 78.5 | 63.1 | 16.4 |
| April 1953 | 60.2 | 41.7 | 75.5 | 86.1 | 81.0 | 74.8 | 78.1 | 70.8 | 30.2 | 48.5 | 27.4 | 76.2 | 81.3 | 77.3 | 68.3 | 72.9 | 62.7 | 23.2 |
| April 1954 | 60.9 | 40.8 | 78.6 | 89.2 | 83.2 | 81.8 | 84.1 | 78.6 | 28.9 | 49.0 | 27.5 | 77.2 | 88.7 | 77.0 | 70.8 | 76.9 | 61.1 | 17.3 |
| April 1955 | 61.2 | 39.4 | 76.5 | 89.1 | 82.2 | 86.7 | 88.8 | 83.6 | 31.6 | 46.4 | 24.6 | 69.6 | 80.9 | 81.2 | 74.8 | 79.4 | 69.1 | 26.0 |
| March 1956 | 59.8 | 39.2 | 75.9 | 89.7 | 85.4 | 76.3 | 82.0 | 67.9 | 25.9 | 46.4 | 24.7 | 72.2 | 85.5 | 78.5 | 70.1 | 74.7 | 63.8 | 24.3 |
| March 1957 | 57.9 | 38.9 | 73.2 | 86.5 | 82.9 | 77.0 | 83.1 | 68.9 | 26.8 | 46.8 | 26.8 | 74.6 | 79.5 | 81.9 | 72.9 | 78.0 | 66.7 | 24.5 |
| March 1958 | 57.0 | 36.0 | 73.9 | 87.5 | 82.8 | 78.1 | 83.7 | 72.1 | 28.9 | 45.4 | 24.7 | 72.9 | 80.1 | 79.1 | 72.4 | 77.3 | 66.1 | 26.7 |
| March 1959 | 57.0 | 36.5 | 75.3 | 88.2 | 85.1 | 75.3 | 79.7 | 69.6 | 25.3 | 43.4 | 24.0 | 72.7 | 76.4 | 81.8 | 71.1 | 74.4 | 66.4 | 20.3 |
| March 1960 | 55.5 | 34.4 | 76.6 | 85.3 | 85.3 | 74.4 | 77.5 | 69.7 | 24.3 | 44.1 | 25.3 | 73.4 | 79.9 | 79.7 | 75.1 | 80.6 | 67.0 | 21.6 |
| March 1961 | 55.6 | 34.3 | 76.3 | 87.5 | 88.2 | 77.5 | 82.6 | 69.0 | 23.0 | 44.4 | 26.1 | 76.5 | 79.9 | 77.5 | 76.0 | 81.8 | 68.6 | 20.8 |
| March 1962 | 51.7 | 32.4 | 73.9 | 87.0 | 80.3 | 73.4 | 76.0 | 70.0 | 24.8 | 41.7 | 25.0 | 70.9 | 79.8 | 77.3 | 71.0 | 74.1 | 67.2 | 17.3 |
| March 1963 | 50.5 | 31.7 | 74.1 | 85.5 | 81.0 | 72.6 | 75.7 | 69.0 | 18.2 | 41.0 | 23.6 | 71.9 | 81.4 | 82.5 | 73.7 | 79.2 | 67.6 | 16.9 |
| March 1964 | 50.8 | 33.0 | 70.6 | 83.6 | 82.8 | 73.9 | 81.4 | 64.5 | 20.3 | 40.9 | 23.5 | 74.0 | 87.2 | 83.0 | 71.3 | 75.0 | 67.0 | 19.2 |
| March 1965 | 50.3 | 32.0 | 72.3 | 85.3 | 84.6 | 72.0 | 78.5 | 65.1 | 18.1 | 40.5 | 23.6 | 72.3 | 83.4 | 77.0 | 71.8 | 75.7 | 69.1 | 21.3 |
| March 1966 | 49.7 | 34.5 | 69.0 | 85.1 | 84.8 | 67.6 | 71.6 | 63.0 | 15.7 | 40.8 | 25.5 | 72.6 | 80.9 | 75.4 | 69.7 | 73.6 | 65.6 | 18.0 |
| March 1967 | 50.7 | 35.8 | 69.8 | 85.7 | 84.6 | 69.3 | 76.6 | 61.8 | 16.2 | 41.3 | 27.3 | 70.3 | 80.9 | 74.5 | 67.8 | 72.2 | 63.2 | 17.3 |
| March 1967 [2] | 50.7 | 46.6 | 69.8 | 85.7 | 84.6 | 69.3 | 76.6 | 61.8 | 16.2 | 50.7 | 37.2 | 70.3 | 80.9 | 74.5 | 67.8 | 72.2 | 63.2 | 17.3 |
| MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 92.6 | (3) | (3) | 97.7 | 98.8 | 95.0 | (3) | (3) | 54.5 | 20.0 | (3) | (3) | 19.8 | 28.8 | 18.4 | (3) | (3) | 4.1 |
| April 1948 | 92.5 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | 22.0 | 21.2 | 24.9 | 22.2 | 27.3 | 19.4 | (3) | (3) | 6.1 |
| April 1949 | 92.2 | (3) | 94.9 | 97.7 | 98.7 | 94.3 | (3) | (3) | 51.9 | 22.5 | 18.6 | 24.5 | 22.7 | 28.5 | 20.6 | (3) | (3) | 5.2 |
| March 1950 | 91.6 | 92.6 | 94.5 | 97.0 | 98.8 | 92.8 | (3) | (3) | 53.4 | 23.8 | 24.0 | 28.5 | 23.8 | 28.5 | 21.8 | (3) | (3) | 6.4 |
| April 1951 | 91.7 | 96.7 | 95.6 | 98.2 | 98.4 | 93.5 | (3) | (3) | 50.9 | 25.2 | 17.6 | 29.1 | 25.6 | 30.5 | 23.7 | (3) | (3) | 6.5 |
| April 1952 | 91.7 | 97.0 | 97.9 | 99.0 | 98.8 | 93.8 | 97.1 | 89.3 | 47.8 | 25.3 | 21.9 | 25.8 | 25.4 | 31.7 | 24.1 | 29.0 | 16.9 | 5.9 |
| April 1953 | 91.5 | 100.0 | 96.1 | 98.7 | 98.8 | 94.9 | 97.6 | 91.0 | 46.2 | 26.3 | 30.8 | 28.2 | 25.2 | 33.6 | 25.7 | 30.8 | 17.6 | 6.0 |
| April 1954 | 91.5 | 91.6 | 98.0 | 98.9 | 99.0 | 94.9 | 97.8 | 90.9 | 47.1 | 26.6 | 20.9 | 25.6 | 26.3 | 33.1 | 26.9 | 31.0 | 20.7 | 5.4 |
| April 1955 | 90.7 | 98.8 | 94.5 | 98.8 | 98.8 | 93.8 | 97.4 | 88.8 | 44.2 | 27.7 | 19.8 | 29.4 | 26.0 | 32.7 | 29.0 | 32.9 | 21.3 | 7.5 |
| March 1956 | 91.0 | 95.5 | 95.5 | 98.7 | 99.2 | 94.6 | 97.8 | 90.1 | 44.8 | 29.0 | 27.6 | 30.9 | 26.3 | 34.3 | 31.5 | 36.5 | 23.5 | 7.8 |
| March 1957 | 90.6 | 97.9 | 95.9 | 98.7 | 98.7 | 94.4 | 97.6 | 90.1 | 42.4 | 29.6 | 24.0 | 30.2 | 27.1 | 35.7 | 32.2 | 37.2 | 24.6 | 6.3 |
| March 1958 | 90.2 | 95.5 | 96.6 | 98.7 | 98.7 | 94.0 | 97.2 | 89.4 | 40.6 | 30.2 | 25.9 | 30.7 | 27.4 | 36.7 | 32.6 | 38.2 | 23.8 | 6.7 |
| March 1959 | 89.6 | 95.7 | 95.6 | 98.6 | 98.9 | 94.0 | 97.3 | 89.3 | 38.2 | 30.9 | 28.1 | 30.6 | 28.5 | 36.9 | 33.9 | 40.3 | 24.0 | 6.4 |
| March 1960 | 88.9 | 96.0 | 97.5 | 98.6 | 98.4 | 93.0 | 96.6 | 87.9 | 37.1 | 30.5 | 25.3 | 30.0 | 27.7 | 36.2 | 34.2 | 40.5 | 24.3 | 5.9 |
| March 1961 | 89.3 | 98.3 | 97.4 | 99.0 | 98.6 | 93.7 | 97.0 | 89.1 | 37.6 | 32.7 | 27.8 | 32.4 | 29.2 | 38.4 | 37.3 | 42.4 | 29.3 | 7.3 |
| March 1962 | 88.3 | 95.2 | 96.0 | 98.7 | 98.6 | 93.6 | 97.1 | 88.8 | 35.0 | 32.7 | 27.5 | 31.6 | 29.4 | 39.0 | 37.2 | 42.5 | 29.0 | 7.6 |
| March 1963 | 88.1 | 97.8 | 96.5 | 98.6 | 98.9 | 93.6 | 97.3 | 88.4 | 32.3 | 33.7 | 29.8 | 33.2 | 30.0 | 39.8 | 38.9 | 44.4 | 30.4 | 6.4 |
| March 1964 | 87.8 | 95.3 | 96.7 | 98.5 | 98.4 | 93.2 | 97.4 | 87.4 | 31.0 | 34.4 | 31.1 | 36.6 | 30.6 | 39.4 | 39.5 | 44.8 | 31.3 | 7.8 |
| March 1965 | 87.7 | 94.3 | 96.6 | 98.5 | 98.2 | 92.8 | 96.8 | 87.1 | 31.1 | 34.7 | 27.0 | 35.6 | 32.1 | 40.6 | 39.0 | 44.0 | 31.4 | 7.6 |
| March 1966 | 87.2 | 91.5 | 96.9 | 98.6 | 98.1 | 92.5 | 96.6 | 86.7 | 29.8 | 35.4 | 34.3 | 38.1 | 32.5 | 41.3 | 39.5 | 44.9 | 31.3 | 6.8 |
| March 1967 | 87.0 | 93.9 | 96.6 | 98.5 | 98.2 | 92.1 | 96.6 | 86.0 | 28.8 | 36.8 | 30.6 | 41.1 | 35.0 | 42.7 | 40.4 | 44.9 | 33.5 | 6.6 |
| March 1967 [2] | 87.0 | 93.8 | 96.6 | 98.5 | 98.2 | 92.1 | 96.6 | 86.0 | 28.8 | 36.8 | 31.5 | 41.1 | 35.0 | 42.7 | 40.4 | 44.9 | 33.5 | 6.6 |
| WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| April 1947 | 65.7 | (3) | (3) | 85.2 | 89.6 | 78.8 | (3) | (3) | 32.8 | 37.4 | (3) | (3) | 63.8 | 67.6 | 45.4 | (3) | (3) | 7.6 |
| April 1948 | 64.0 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | 38.7 | 41.0 | 57.9 | 64.7 | 67.9 | 48.9 | (3) | (3) | 8.5 |
| April 1949 | 60.9 | (4) | 69.9 | 78.0 | 87.1 | 74.9 | (3) | (3) | 32.2 | 37.1 | 39.7 | 47.6 | 59.2 | 68.4 | 46.7 | (3) | (3) | 8.6 |
| March 1950 | 63.0 | (4) | 75.0 | 83.8 | 83.4 | 83.1 | (3) | (3) | 30.2 | 37.8 | (4) | 45.5 | 62.3 | 65.4 | 50.2 | (3) | (3) | 8.8 |
| April 1951 | 62.1 | (4) | 81.7 | 81.8 | 87.4 | 77.8 | (3) | (3) | 27.6 | 39.3 | 39.1 | 45.3 | 58.7 | 69.0 | 51.5 | (3) | (3) | 9.2 |
| April 1952 | 62.2 | (4) | 78.2 | 81.1 | 88.2 | 79.0 | 79.1 | 78.9 | 27.3 | 38.8 | 41.0 | 59.0 | 63.0 | 68.7 | 49.6 | 61.5 | 39.5 | 8.2 |
| April 1953 | 65.4 | (4) | (4) | 82.9 | 92.1 | 84.2 | 89.6 | 79.9 | 29.2 | 39.1 | 47.8 | 52.9 | 61.2 | 67.2 | 57.4 | 64.7 | 42.6 | 9.1 |
| April 1954 | 62.3 | (4) | 82.2 | 76.3 | 90.6 | 78.8 | 83.7 | 74.4 | 22.7 | 39.4 | 48.6 | 47.6 | 62.7 | 69.3 | 52.0 | 61.8 | 44.6 | 9.8 |
| April 1955 | 60.7 | (4) | (4) | 80.9 | 83.5 | 78.6 | 85.6 | 72.7 | 26.4 | 39.6 | 37.3 | 55.1 | 60.5 | 64.6 | 53.3 | 64.1 | 45.1 | 10.7 |
| March 1956 | 61.0 | (4) | 82.8 | 79.7 | 86.5 | 78.0 | 80.5 | 75.3 | 27.2 | 39.4 | 35.3 | 49.5 | 60.6 | 66.8 | 55.8 | 63.0 | 50.6 | 10.2 |
| March 1957 | 58.5 | (4) | 85.8 | 81.2 | 86.8 | 76.3 | 82.8 | 69.7 | 24.5 | 40.4 | 35.5 | 53.1 | 62.1 | 69.4 | 56.0 | 66.4 | 47.8 | 12.3 |
| March 1958 | 58.7 | (4) | 77.2 | 79.0 | 87.1 | 77.3 | 80.5 | 74.5 | 23.0 | 40.8 | 31.8 | 59.6 | 62.6 | 69.9 | 58.3 | 68.2 | 50.9 | 11.2 |
| March 1959 | 59.8 | (4) | 69.2 | 80.0 | 87.1 | 77.2 | 82.8 | 72.4 | 20.8 | 41.2 | 34.5 | 57.6 | 61.4 | 65.7 | 60.3 | 68.6 | 53.9 | 11.0 |
| March 1960 | 59.3 | (4) | 88.6 | 82.3 | 84.1 | 78.1 | 84.3 | 72.6 | 18.2 | 40.0 | 37.3 | 54.6 | 55.5 | 67.4 | 58.3 | 66.2 | 50.7 | 11.0 |
| March 1961 | 58.6 | (4) | 81.0 | 81.3 | 81.6 | 78.2 | 83.1 | 73.1 | 21.2 | 42.0 | 42.3 | 58.5 | 61.5 | 72.2 | 59.7 | 69.9 | 51.5 | 12.0 |
| March 1962 | 57.4 | (4) | 70.7 | 80.8 | 85.0 | 77.4 | 82.6 | 71.7 | 18.7 | 39.1 | 34.0 | 54.7 | 57.5 | 63.3 | 60.2 | 71.0 | 52.0 | 11.2 |
| March 1963 | 56.7 | (4) | 71.8 | 79.0 | 82.4 | 77.2 | 83.4 | 70.6 | 16.3 | 39.5 | 36.6 | 56.1 | 56.5 | 66.8 | 59.1 | 67.8 | 52.5 | 9.8 |
| March 1964 | 56.3 | (4) | 79.7 | 82.9 | 81.5 | 77.3 | 82.6 | 71.8 | 17.1 | 38.7 | 28.7 | 50.3 | 60.3 | 63.7 | 60.4 | 70.2 | 53.1 | 10.3 |
| March 1965 | 55.8 | (4) | 65.0 | 79.0 | 82.1 | 77.2 | 81.6 | 72.6 | 18.8 | 38.9 | 35.2 | 58.6 | 62.8 | 65.0 | 59.8 | 67.9 | 53.8 | 10.0 |
| March 1966 | 56.1 | (4) | 85.6 | 82.4 | 84.6 | 75.3 | 80.5 | 70.9 | 14.8 | 39.5 | 45.0 | 55.3 | 58.5 | 67.2 | 61.3 | 69.0 | 54.4 | 10.7 |
| March 1967 | 54.8 | (4) | 78.4 | 81.0 | 82.6 | 74.6 | 81.4 | 68.0 | 15.2 | 39.3 | 38.7 | 60.9 | 62.4 | 68.9 | 60.2 | 69.1 | 53.5 | 9.6 |
| March 1967 [2] | 54.9 | (4) | 78.4 | 81.0 | 82.6 | 74.6 | 81.4 | 68.0 | 15.2 | 39.4 | 41.1 | 60.9 | 62.4 | 68.9 | 60.2 | 69.1 | 53.5 | 9.6 |

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[1] Percent of population in the labor force. See footnote 1, table B–1.

[2] Prior to the raising of the lower age limit in 1967, the total included persons 14 years and over and the column showing "under 20 years" included persons 14 to 19 years; in accordance with the change introduced in 1967, only persons 16 years and over are included.

[3] Not available.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

# Table B–3. Employment Status of Family Head, Wife, and Other Family Members in Husband-Wife Families,[1] Selected Dates, 1955–67

[Numbers in thousands]

| Employment status of head and family members | March of— | | | | | | | | | | April of 1955 [3] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 [2] | 1961 | 1960 [2] | 1959 | 1958 | |
| **Head in Labor Force [4]** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 37,060 | 36,763 | 36,545 | 36,286 | 36,079 | 35,713 | 35,453 | 35,041 | 34,625 | 34,412 | 34,064 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Wife or other member in labor force | 50.4 | 48.7 | 47.4 | 47.6 | 46.5 | 45.0 | 45.0 | 43.0 | 43.3 | 41.9 | 39.9 |
| Wife only | 30.7 | 29.8 | 29.6 | 28.8 | 28.7 | 28.1 | 27.6 | 25.8 | 26.1 | 26.0 | 23.9 |
| Wife and other member | 8.8 | 8.2 | 7.3 | 7.6 | 6.9 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.2 | 6.1 | 5.4 | 4.9 |
| Other member only | 10.9 | 10.7 | 10.5 | 11.1 | 10.8 | 10.4 | 10.8 | 11.1 | 11.2 | 10.5 | 11.2 |
| Wife or other member employed [5] | 47.9 | 46.2 | 44.6 | 44.3 | 43.3 | 42.0 | 41.2 | 40.1 | 40.1 | 38.8 | 38.2 |
| Wife or other member unemployed (none employed) | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 1.8 |
| Neither wife nor other member in labor force | 49.6 | 51.3 | 52.6 | 52.4 | 53.5 | 55.0 | 55.0 | 57.0 | 56.7 | 58.1 | 60.1 |
| **Head Employed [4]** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 36,305 | 35,918 | 35,512 | 35,052 | 34,595 | 34,185 | 33,428 | 33,579 | 33,149 | 32,298 | 32,893 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Wife or other member in labor force | 50.3 | 48.6 | 47.2 | 47.3 | 46.2 | 44.7 | 44.6 | 42.7 | 43.1 | 41.4 | 39.6 |
| Wife only | 30.5 | 29.7 | 29.4 | 28.6 | 28.6 | 27.8 | 27.3 | 25.5 | 25.8 | 25.5 | 23.6 |
| Wife and other member | 8.8 | 8.1 | 7.3 | 7.6 | 6.9 | 6.4 | 6.6 | 6.1 | 6.0 | 5.3 | 4.8 |
| Other member only | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 11.2 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 10.8 | 11.2 | 11.3 | 10.5 | 11.2 |
| Wife or other member employed [5] | 47.9 | 46.3 | 44.5 | 44.3 | 43.2 | 41.9 | 41.2 | 40.0 | 40.1 | 38.8 | 38.0 |
| Wife or other member unemployed (none employed) | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 1.6 |
| Neither wife nor other member in labor force | 49.7 | 51.4 | 52.8 | 52.7 | 53.8 | 55.3 | 55.4 | 57.3 | 56.9 | 58.6 | 60.4 |
| **Head Unemployed** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 755 | 847 | 1,033 | 1,234 | 1,484 | 1,528 | 2,025 | 1,462 | 1,477 | 2,114 | 1,171 |
| As percent of heads in labor force | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 6.1 | 3.4 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Wife or other member in labor force | 56.3 | 50.1 | 54.6 | 54.4 | 53.2 | 50.9 | 51.4 | 49.7 | 49.0 | 49.0 | 48.8 |
| Wife only | 36.7 | 31.9 | 36.6 | 36.6 | 32.3 | 34.1 | 34.1 | 32.1 | 32.6 | 32.4 | 31.3 |
| Wife and other member | 9.1 | 10.4 | 7.8 | 7.7 | 9.0 | 8.5 | 6.5 | 8.0 | 7.1 | 6.9 | 6.6 |
| Other member only | 10.5 | 7.8 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 11.9 | 8.3 | 10.8 | 9.6 | 9.3 | 9.7 | 10.8 |
| Wife or other member employed [5] | 48.2 | 42.9 | 47.5 | 44.4 | 45.7 | 42.6 | 41.5 | 41.7 | 40.8 | 39.3 | 42.4 |
| Wife or other member unemployed (none employed) | 8.1 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 10.0 | 7.5 | 8.3 | 9.9 | 7.9 | 8.2 | 9.7 | 6.4 |
| Neither wife nor other member in labor force | 43.7 | 49.9 | 45.4 | 45.6 | 46.8 | 49.0 | 48.6 | 50.3 | 51.0 | 51.0 | 51.2 |

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[1] The number of men in husband-wife families shown here is smaller than the number shown as married with spouse present in table B–1 because it excludes married couples living in households where a relative is the head.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data for 1955 not strictly comparable with later years. See footnote 4, table B–1.

[4] Includes members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.

[5] This category may also include a wife or other member who is unemployed.

## Table B-4. Labor Force Status and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] of Married Women, Husband Present, by Presence and Age of Children, 1948–67

| Date | Total | No children under 18 years | Children 6 to 17 years only | Children under 6 years: Total | Children under 6 years: No children 6 to 17 years | Children under 6 years: Children 6 to 17 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Number in labor force (thousands)** | | | | | |
| April 1948 | 7,553 | 4,400 | 1,927 | 1,226 | 594 | 632 |
| April 1949 | 7,959 | 4,544 | 2,130 | 1,285 | 654 | 631 |
| March 1950 | 8,550 | 4,946 | 2,205 | 1,399 | 748 | 651 |
| April 1951 | 9,086 | 5,016 | 2,400 | 1,670 | 886 | 784 |
| April 1952 | 9,222 | 5,042 | 2,492 | 1,688 | 916 | 772 |
| April 1953 [2] | 9,763 | 5,130 | 2,749 | 1,884 | 1,047 | 837 |
| April 1954 | 9,923 | 5,096 | 3,019 | 1,808 | 883 | 925 |
| April 1955 | 10,423 | 5,227 | 3,183 | 2,012 | 927 | 1,086 |
| March 1956 | 11,126 | 5,694 | 3,384 | 2,048 | 971 | 1,077 |
| March 1957 | 11,529 | 5,805 | 3,517 | 2,208 | 961 | 1,247 |
| March 1958 | 11,826 | 5,713 | 3,714 | 2,399 | 1,122 | 1,277 |
| March 1959 | 12,205 | 5,679 | 4,055 | 2,471 | 1,118 | 1,353 |
| March 1960 [2] | 12,253 | 5,692 | 4,087 | 2,474 | 1,123 | 1,351 |
| March 1961 | 13,266 | 6,186 | 4,419 | 2,661 | 1,178 | 1,483 |
| March 1962 [2] | 13,485 | 6,156 | 4,445 | 2,884 | 1,282 | 1,602 |
| March 1963 | 14,061 | 6,366 | 4,689 | 3,006 | 1,346 | 1,660 |
| March 1964 | 14,461 | 6,545 | 4,866 | 3,050 | 1,408 | 1,642 |
| March 1965 | 14,708 | 6,755 | 4,836 | 3,117 | 1,404 | 1,700 |
| March 1966 | 15,178 | 7,043 | 4,949 | 3,186 | 1,431 | 1,755 |
| March 1967 | 15,908 | 7,158 | 5,269 | 3,480 | 1,629 | 1,851 |
| | **Labor force participation rate** | | | | | |
| April 1948 | 22.0 | 28.4 | 26.0 | 10.8 | 9.2 | 12.7 |
| April 1949 | 22.5 | 28.7 | 27.3 | 11.0 | 10.0 | 12.2 |
| March 1950 | 23.8 | 30.3 | 28.3 | 11.9 | 11.2 | 12.6 |
| April 1951 | 25.2 | 31.0 | 30.3 | 14.0 | 13.6 | 14.6 |
| April 1952 | 25.3 | 30.9 | 31.1 | 13.9 | 13.7 | 14.1 |
| April 1953 | 26.3 | 31.2 | 32.2 | 15.5 | 15.8 | 15.2 |
| April 1954 | 26.6 | 31.6 | 33.2 | 14.9 | 14.3 | 15.5 |
| April 1955 | 27.7 | 32.7 | 34.7 | 16.2 | 15.1 | 17.3 |
| March 1956 | 29.0 | 35.3 | 36.4 | 15.9 | 15.6 | 16.1 |
| March 1957 | 29.6 | 35.6 | 36.6 | 17.0 | 15.9 | 17.9 |
| March 1958 | 30.2 | 35.4 | 37.6 | 18.2 | 18.4 | 18.1 |
| March 1959 | 30.9 | 35.2 | 39.8 | 18.7 | 18.3 | 19.0 |
| March 1960 | 30.5 | 34.7 | 39.0 | 18.6 | 18.2 | 18.9 |
| March 1961 | 32.7 | 37.3 | 41.7 | 20.0 | 19.6 | 20.3 |
| March 1962 | 32.7 | 36.1 | 41.8 | 21.3 | 21.1 | 21.5 |
| March 1963 | 33.7 | 37.4 | 41.5 | 22.5 | 22.4 | 22.5 |
| March 1964 | 34.4 | 37.8 | 43.0 | 22.7 | 23.6 | 21.9 |
| March 1965 | 34.7 | 38.3 | 42.7 | 23.3 | 23.8 | 22.8 |
| March 1966 | 35.4 | 38.4 | 43.7 | 24.2 | 24.0 | 24.3 |
| March 1967 | 36.8 | 38.9 | 45.0 | 26.5 | 26.9 | 26.2 |

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[1] Percent of noninstitutional population in the labor force.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

## Table B-5. Employed Married Women, Husband Present, by Occupation Group, 1947–67

| Date | All occupation groups: Number (thousands) | All occupation groups: Percent | Professional and technical workers | Farmers and farm managers | Managers, officials, and proprietors | Clerical workers | Sales workers | Craftsmen and foremen | Operatives | Private household workers | Service workers, exc. private household | Farm laborers and foremen | Nonfarm laborers |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| April 1947 | 6,507 | 100.0 | 7.9 | 1.9 | 6.5 | 21.2 | 8.7 | 1.1 | 25.6 | 8.4 | 11.2 | 7.1 | .5 |
| April 1948 | 7,369 | 100.0 | 7.7 | 1.8 | 7.2 | 32.0 | | 1.3 | 24.6 | 17.7 | | 7.2 | .3 |
| April 1949 | 7,637 | 100.0 | 8.3 | 1.5 | 6.9 | 32.4 | | 1.1 | 22.0 | 18.7 | | 8.6 | .5 |
| March 1950 | 8,039 | 100.0 | 9.5 | 1.0 | 7.0 | 32.4 | | 1.2 | 23.1 | 20.2 | | 5.2 | .4 |
| April 1951 | 8,750 | 100.0 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) |
| April 1952 | 8,946 | 100.0 | 9.7 | .7 | 6.6 | 25.8 | 8.8 | 1.3 | 23.0 | 6.8 | 11.2 | 5.4 | .7 |
| April 1953 [2] | 9,525 | 100.0 | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (1) |
| April 1954 | 9,388 | 100.0 | 11.2 | .5 | 6.1 | 24.4 | 9.2 | 1.5 | 22.4 | 5.9 | 13.2 | 5.3 | .4 |
| April 1955 | 10,021 | 100.0 | 10.5 | .7 | 4.6 | 25.4 | 9.4 | 1.3 | 21.8 | 6.3 | 12.8 | 6.6 | .6 |
| March 1956 | 10,676 | 100.0 | 10.4 | .6 | 5.6 | 27.6 | 9.6 | 1.4 | 19.0 | 6.9 | 13.2 | 5.1 | .5 |
| March 1957 [3] | 11,036 | 100.0 | 10.7 | .4 | 6.1 | 28.4 | 8.4 | 1.2 | 19.1 | 7.4 | 13.0 | 4.6 | .6 |
| March 1958 | 10,995 | 100.0 | 12.1 | .3 | 5.6 | 28.3 | 8.9 | 1.3 | 18.0 | 7.4 | 14.0 | 3.8 | .5 |
| March 1959 | 11,516 | 100.0 | 12.8 | .4 | 5.9 | 27.7 | 8.7 | 1.1 | 17.9 | 6.3 | 14.9 | 3.9 | .4 |
| March 1960 [2] | 11,587 | 100.0 | 13.0 | .2 | 5.0 | 28.3 | 8.4 | 1.0 | 18.6 | 6.2 | 15.9 | 3.1 | .3 |
| March 1961 | 12,337 | 100.0 | 12.9 | .5 | 5.3 | 29.3 | 9.2 | 1.1 | 16.7 | 6.3 | 14.7 | 3.5 | .5 |
| March 1962 [2] | 12,716 | 100.0 | 14.2 | .4 | 5.7 | 30.6 | 8.7 | 1.2 | 15.6 | 6.0 | 14.4 | 2.7 | .5 |
| March 1963 | 13,303 | 100.0 | 13.4 | .4 | 5.2 | 30.3 | 8.4 | 1.3 | 16.4 | 5.8 | 15.6 | 2.7 | .4 |
| March 1964 | 13,626 | 100.0 | 13.3 | .3 | 5.6 | 30.2 | 8.2 | 1.2 | 17.3 | 5.5 | 15.8 | 2.2 | .4 |
| March 1965 | 13,959 | 100.0 | 14.7 | .2 | 4.7 | 30.2 | 8.1 | 1.3 | 17.5 | 5.1 | 15.5 | 2.3 | .5 |
| March 1966 | 14,623 | 100.0 | 14.0 | .4 | 4.8 | 31.4 | 7.8 | 1.3 | 17.2 | 5.1 | 15.5 | 2.1 | .5 |
| March 1967 | 15,189 | 100.0 | 14.6 | .2 | 4.7 | 32.1 | 7.9 | 1.2 | 17.6 | 4.3 | 15.2 | 1.9 | .3 |

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[1] Not available.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B-1.

# Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–66

| School enrollment and year | Both sexes, 14 to 24 years | Male | | | | | | Female | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years |
| | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | |
| | Population (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 8,927 | 4,898 | 3,364 | (1) | (1) | 587 | 947 | 4,029 | 3,373 | (1) | (1) | 420 | 236 |
| 1948 | 9,061 | 5,015 | 3,436 | (1) | (1) | 682 | 898 | 4,046 | 3,388 | (1) | (1) | 452 | 206 |
| 1949 | 8,846 | 4,866 | 3,447 | (1) | (1) | 593 | 827 | 3,981 | 3,331 | (1) | (1) | 435 | 215 |
| 1950 | 9,189 | 4,982 | 3,568 | (1) | (1) | 680 | 733 | 4,207 | 3,420 | (1) | (1) | 519 | 268 |
| 1951 | 9,036 | 4,750 | 3,614 | (1) | (1) | 534 | 602 | 4,286 | 3,602 | (1) | (1) | 440 | 244 |
| 1952 | 9,406 | 5,000 | 3,758 | (1) | (1) | 612 | 630 | 4,406 | 3,682 | (1) | (1) | 450 | 274 |
| 1953 [2] | 9,700 | 5,122 | 3,844 | 2,214 | 1,630 | 642 | 636 | 4,579 | 3,695 | 2,145 | 1,550 | 538 | 346 |
| 1954 | 10,052 | 5,410 | 4,002 | 2,232 | 1,770 | 730 | 677 | 4,642 | 3,782 | 2,145 | 1,637 | 538 | 322 |
| 1955 | 10,212 | 5,534 | 4,096 | 2,285 | 1,811 | 752 | 686 | 4,677 | 3,873 | 2,231 | 1,642 | 480 | 324 |
| 1956 | 11,013 | 5,915 | 4,276 | 2,482 | 1,794 | 809 | 830 | 5,098 | 4,138 | 2,404 | 1,734 | 598 | 362 |
| 1957 [3] | 11,812 | 6,323 | 4,646 | 2,729 | 1,917 | 780 | 897 | 5,489 | 4,421 | 2,599 | 1,822 | 629 | 439 |
| 1958 | 12,317 | 6,667 | 4,854 | 2,751 | 2,103 | 898 | 915 | 5,651 | 4,591 | 2,664 | 1,927 | 667 | 393 |
| 1959 | 12,719 | 6,849 | 5,039 | 2,716 | 2,323 | 918 | 892 | 5,870 | 4,796 | 2,603 | 2,193 | 683 | 391 |
| 1960 [2] | 13,409 | 7,247 | 5,248 | 2,878 | 2,370 | 1,063 | 936 | 6,162 | 4,994 | 2,763 | 2,231 | 754 | 414 |
| 1961 | 14,582 | 7,863 | 5,705 | 3,394 | 2,311 | 1,170 | 988 | 6,719 | 5,458 | 3,227 | 2,231 | 782 | 479 |
| 1962 [2] | 15,609 | 8,421 | 6,032 | 3,576 | 2,456 | 1,212 | 1,177 | 7,188 | 5,708 | 3,422 | 2,286 | 932 | 548 |
| 1963 | 16,592 | 8,947 | 6,402 | 3,466 | 2,936 | 1,180 | 1,365 | 7,645 | 6,115 | 3,347 | 2,768 | 881 | 649 |
| 1964 | 17,258 | 9,228 | 6,658 | 3,479 | 3,179 | 1,238 | 1,332 | 8,030 | 6,356 | 3,353 | 3,003 | 958 | 716 |
| 1965 | 18,323 | 9,861 | 6,613 | 3,546 | 3,067 | 1,689 | 1,559 | 8,462 | 6,420 | 3,434 | 2,986 | 1,241 | 801 |
| 1966 | 19,016 | 10,278 | 6,770 | 3,640 | 3,130 | 1,841 | 1,667 | 8,738 | 6,523 | 3,526 | 2,997 | 1,335 | 880 |
| NOT ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 15,330 | 6,808 | 900 | (1) | (1) | 1,282 | 4,626 | 8,521 | 855 | (1) | (1) | 1,848 | 5,818 |
| 1948 | 14,906 | 6,606 | 758 | (1) | (1) | 1,306 | 4,542 | 8,299 | 760 | (1) | (1) | 1,770 | 5,770 |
| 1949 | 14,782 | 6,574 | 729 | (1) | (1) | 1,286 | 4,558 | 8,208 | 797 | (1) | (1) | 1,748 | 5,664 |
| 1950 | 14,159 | 6,291 | 659 | (1) | (1) | 1,224 | 4,408 | 7,868 | 735 | (1) | (1) | 1,613 | 5,520 |
| 1951 | 13,034 | 5,340 | 628 | (1) | (1) | 1,114 | 3,598 | 7,694 | 628 | (1) | (1) | 1,626 | 5,440 |
| 1952 | 12,310 | 4,776 | 642 | (1) | (1) | 1,032 | 3,102 | 7,534 | 652 | (1) | (1) | 1,590 | 5,292 |
| 1953 [2] | 11,731 | 4,442 | 585 | 83 | 502 | 1,063 | 2,795 | 7,289 | 652 | 75 | 577 | 1,542 | 5,094 |
| 1954 | 11,696 | 4,436 | 508 | 90 | 418 | 1,067 | 2,861 | 7,260 | 644 | 103 | 541 | 1,580 | 5,035 |
| 1955 | 11,980 | 4,655 | 526 | 103 | 423 | 1,018 | 3,111 | 7,326 | 674 | 90 | 584 | 1,655 | 4,997 |
| 1956 | 11,833 | 4,706 | 524 | 74 | 450 | 984 | 3,198 | 7,127 | 602 | 80 | 522 | 1,587 | 4,938 |
| 1957 [3] | 11,917 | 4,794 | 455 | 57 | 398 | 1,021 | 3,318 | 7,123 | 612 | 102 | 510 | 1,611 | 4,900 |
| 1958 | 12,208 | 4,935 | 495 | 89 | 406 | 994 | 3,446 | 7,273 | 651 | 86 | 565 | 1,599 | 5,023 |
| 1959 | 12,613 | 5,240 | 479 | 61 | 418 | 1,097 | 3,664 | 7,373 | 594 | 80 | 514 | 1,655 | 5,124 |
| 1960 [2] | 12,995 | 5,428 | 496 | 61 | 435 | 1,158 | 3,774 | 7,567 | 603 | 66 | 537 | 1,758 | 5,206 |
| 1961 | 13,465 | 5,638 | 485 | 67 | 418 | 1,237 | 3,916 | 7,827 | 570 | 93 | 477 | 1,950 | 5,307 |
| 1962 [2] | 13,304 | 5,409 | 409 | 45 | 364 | 1,154 | 3,846 | 7,895 | 611 | 95 | 516 | 1,831 | 5,453 |
| 1963 | 13,572 | 5,495 | 395 | 46 | 349 | 1,135 | 3,965 | 8,077 | 563 | 67 | 496 | 1,847 | 5,667 |
| 1964 | 14,163 | 5,857 | 397 | 34 | 363 | 1,196 | 4,264 | 8,306 | 567 | 62 | 505 | 1,884 | 5,855 |
| 1965 | 14,435 | 5,887 | 455 | 35 | 420 | 1,351 | 4,081 | 8,548 | 496 | 44 | 452 | 2,048 | 6,000 |
| 1966 | 14,688 | 5,781 | 398 | 47 | 351 | 1,346 | 4,037 | 8,907 | 500 | 56 | 444 | 2,202 | 6,245 |
| | Labor force (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 744 | (1) | (1) | 149 | (1) | (1) | 393 | (1) | (1) | 89 | (1) |
| 1948 | 1,855 | 1,265 | 833 | (1) | (1) | 190 | 241 | 590 | 478 | (1) | (1) | 65 | 48 |
| 1949 | 1,877 | 1,197 | 775 | (1) | (1) | 163 | 258 | 680 | 502 | (1) | (1) | 106 | 72 |
| 1950 | 2,421 | 1,575 | 1,066 | (1) | (1) | 245 | 264 | 846 | 614 | (1) | (1) | 144 | 87 |
| 1951 | 2,290 | 1,428 | 1,012 | (1) | (1) | 172 | 244 | 862 | 656 | (1) | (1) | 126 | 80 |
| 1952 | 1,980 | 1,310 | 946 | (1) | (1) | 192 | 172 | 670 | 512 | (1) | (1) | 76 | 82 |
| 1953 [2] | 1,888 | 1,226 | 855 | 382 | 473 | 206 | 165 | 662 | 474 | 197 | 277 | 96 | 92 |
| 1954 | 2,332 | 1,496 | 1,031 | 462 | 569 | 206 | 265 | 836 | 592 | 203 | 389 | 126 | 118 |
| 1955 | 2,706 | 1,801 | 1,185 | 510 | 675 | 330 | 286 | 905 | 634 | 282 | 352 | 135 | 136 |
| 1956 | 3,007 | 1,894 | 1,193 | 547 | 646 | 319 | 382 | 1,113 | 774 | 310 | 464 | 162 | 177 |
| 1957 [3] | 3,161 | 1,990 | 1,276 | 582 | 694 | 299 | 415 | 1,171 | 795 | 310 | 485 | 167 | 20 |
| 1958 | 3,116 | 2,037 | 1,276 | 514 | 762 | 309 | 452 | 1,079 | 717 | 285 | 432 | 211 | 151 |
| 1959 | 3,373 | 2,128 | 1,353 | 574 | 779 | 330 | 445 | 1,245 | 872 | 357 | 515 | 196 | 177 |
| 1960 [2] | 3,390 | 2,171 | 1,386 | 580 | 806 | 371 | 414 | 1,219 | 841 | 336 | 505 | 210 | 168 |
| 1961 | 3,551 | 2,223 | 1,352 | 617 | 735 | 382 | 489 | 1,328 | 900 | 439 | 461 | 235 | 193 |
| 1962 [2] | 3,872 | 2,481 | 1,437 | 651 | 786 | 423 | 621 | 1,391 | 940 | 413 | 527 | 203 | 248 |
| 1963 | 4,220 | 2,711 | 1,597 | 608 | 989 | 433 | 681 | 1,509 | 1,007 | 348 | 659 | 253 | 249 |
| 1964 | 4,315 | 2,732 | 1,646 | 612 | 1,034 | 446 | 640 | 1,583 | 1,071 | 388 | 683 | 241 | 271 |
| 1965 | 5,075 | 3,213 | 1,838 | 698 | 1,140 | 611 | 764 | 1,862 | 1,185 | 410 | 775 | 360 | 317 |
| 1966 | 5,284 | 3,276 | 1,808 | 604 | 1,204 | 690 | 778 | 2,008 | 1,218 | 407 | 811 | 447 | 343 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–66—Continued

| School enrollment and year | Both sexes, 14 to 24 years | Male | | | | | | Female | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years |
| | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | |
| | **Labor force (thousands)—Continued** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **NOT ENROLLED** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 808 | (1) | (1) | 1,199 | (1) | (1) | 464 | (1) | (1) | 1,128 | (1) |
| 1948 | 10,421 | 6,304 | 680 | (1) | (1) | 1,248 | 4,376 | 4,117 | 422 | (1) | (1) | 1,040 | 2,655 |
| 1949 | 10,306 | 6,181 | 625 | (1) | (1) | 1,214 | 4,342 | 4,125 | 399 | (1) | (1) | 1,062 | 2,664 |
| 1950 | 10,049 | 5,958 | 578 | (1) | (1) | 1,172 | 4,209 | 4,091 | 380 | (1) | (1) | 979 | 2,732 |
| 1951 | 8,920 | 5,064 | 512 | (1) | (1) | 1,058 | 3,494 | 3,856 | 296 | (1) | (1) | 984 | 2,576 |
| 1952 | 8,194 | 4,438 | 566 | (1) | (1) | 960 | 2,912 | 3,756 | 350 | (1) | (1) | 960 | 2,445 |
| 1953 [2] | 7,823 | 4,204 | 500 | 65 | 434 | 1,019 | 2,685 | 3,620 | 311 | 23 | 288 | 959 | 2,350 |
| 1954 | 7,691 | 4,044 | 407 | 52 | 355 | 955 | 2,682 | 3,647 | 257 | 29 | 228 | 957 | 2,433 |
| 1955 | 8,155 | 4,400 | 428 | 54 | 374 | 965 | 3,007 | 3,755 | 299 | 23 | 276 | 1,025 | 2,431 |
| 1956 | 8,073 | 4,390 | 422 | 40 | 382 | 892 | 3,076 | 3,683 | 282 | 23 | 259 | 959 | 2,442 |
| 1957 [3] | 7,975 | 4,507 | 362 | 31 | 331 | 947 | 3,198 | 3,467 | 240 | 16 | 225 | 993 | 2,234 |
| 1958 | 8,296 | 4,643 | 399 | 56 | 343 | 924 | 3,320 | 3,653 | 284 | 26 | 258 | 949 | 2,420 |
| 1959 | 8,530 | 4,931 | 366 | 31 | 335 | 1,019 | 3,546 | 3,599 | 250 | 20 | 230 | 951 | 2,398 |
| 1960 [2] | 8,913 | 5,124 | 383 | 27 | 356 | 1,075 | 3,666 | 3,789 | 297 | 24 | 273 | 1,060 | 2,432 |
| 1961 | 9,230 | 5,228 | 353 | 32 | 321 | 1,115 | 3,760 | 4,002 | 263 | 20 | 243 | 1,173 | 2,566 |
| 1962 [2] | 9,149 | 5,071 | 304 | 26 | 278 | 1,065 | 3,702 | 4,078 | 235 | 12 | 223 | 1,130 | 2,713 |
| 1963 | 9,314 | 5,158 | 293 | 20 | 273 | 1,061 | 3,804 | 4,156 | 227 | 10 | 217 | 1,133 | 2,796 |
| 1964 | 9,892 | 5,490 | 273 | 10 | 263 | 1,100 | 4,117 | 4,402 | 233 | 18 | 215 | 1,135 | 3,034 |
| 1965 | 10,131 | 5,518 | 356 | 14 | 342 | 1,232 | 3,930 | 4,613 | 205 | 11 | 194 | 1,297 | 3,111 |
| 1966 | 10,333 | 5,414 | 276 | 18 | 258 | 1,192 | 3,946 | 4,919 | 208 | 12 | 196 | 1,385 | 3,326 |
| | **Labor force participation rate [4]** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **ENROLLED** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 22.1 | (1) | (1) | 25.4 | (1) | (1) | 11.7 | (1) | (1) | 21.2 | (1) |
| 1948 | 20.5 | 25.2 | 24.2 | (1) | (1) | 27.9 | 26.8 | 14.6 | 14.1 | (1) | (1) | 14.4 | 23.3 |
| 1949 | 21.2 | 24.6 | 22.5 | (1) | (1) | 27.5 | 31.2 | 17.1 | 15.1 | (1) | (1) | 24.4 | 33.5 |
| 1950 | 26.3 | 31.6 | 29.9 | (1) | (1) | 36.0 | 36.0 | 20.1 | 18.0 | (1) | (1) | 27.7 | 32.5 |
| 1951 | 25.3 | 30.0 | 28.0 | (1) | (1) | 32.2 | 40.5 | 20.1 | 18.2 | (1) | (1) | 28.6 | 32.8 |
| 1952 | 21.0 | 26.2 | 25.2 | (1) | (1) | 31.4 | 27.3 | 15.2 | 13.9 | (1) | (1) | 16.9 | 29.9 |
| 1953 | 19.5 | 23.9 | 22.2 | 17.3 | 29.0 | 32.1 | 25.9 | 14.5 | 12.8 | 9.2 | 17.9 | 17.8 | 26.6 |
| 1954 | 23.2 | 27.7 | 25.8 | 20.7 | 31.2 | 27.4 | 39.1 | 18.0 | 15.7 | 9.5 | 23.8 | 23.4 | 36.6 |
| 1955 | 26.5 | 32.5 | 28.9 | 22.3 | 37.3 | 43.9 | 41.7 | 19.4 | 16.4 | 12.6 | 21.4 | 28.1 | 42.0 |
| 1956 | 27.3 | 32.0 | 27.9 | 22.0 | 36.0 | 39.4 | 46.0 | 21.8 | 18.7 | 12.9 | 26.8 | 27.1 | 48.9 |
| 1957 | 26.8 | 31.5 | 27.5 | 21.3 | 36.2 | 38.3 | 46.3 | 21.3 | 18.0 | 11.9 | 26.6 | 26.5 | 47.6 |
| 1958 | 25.3 | 30.6 | 26.3 | 18.7 | 36.2 | 34.4 | 49.4 | 19.1 | 15.6 | 10.7 | 22.4 | 31.6 | 38.4 |
| 1959 | 26.5 | 31.1 | 26.9 | 21.1 | 33.5 | 35.9 | 49.9 | 21.2 | 18.2 | 13.7 | 23.5 | 28.7 | 45.3 |
| 1960 | 25.3 | 30.0 | 26.4 | 20.2 | 34.0 | 34.9 | 44.2 | 19.8 | 16.8 | 12.2 | 22.6 | 27.9 | 40.6 |
| 1961 | 24.4 | 28.3 | 23.7 | 18.2 | 31.8 | 32.6 | 49.5 | 19.8 | 16.5 | 13.6 | 20.7 | 30.1 | 40.3 |
| 1962 | 24.8 | 29.5 | 23.8 | 18.2 | 32.0 | 34.9 | 52.8 | 19.4 | 16.5 | 12.1 | 23.1 | 21.8 | 45.3 |
| 1963 | 25.4 | 30.3 | 24.9 | 17.5 | 33.7 | 36.7 | 49.9 | 19.7 | 16.5 | 10.4 | 23.8 | 28.7 | 38.4 |
| 1964 | 25.0 | 29.6 | 24.7 | 17.6 | 32.5 | 36.0 | 48.0 | 19.7 | 16.8 | 11.6 | 22.7 | 25.2 | 37.8 |
| 1965 | 27.7 | 32.6 | 27.8 | 19.7 | 37.2 | 36.2 | 49.0 | 22.0 | 18.5 | 11.9 | 26.0 | 29.0 | 39.6 |
| 1966 | 27.8 | 31.9 | 26.7 | 16.6 | 38.5 | 37.5 | 46.7 | 23.0 | 18.7 | 11.5 | 27.1 | 33.5 | 39.0 |
| **NOT ENROLLED** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 89.8 | (1) | (1) | 93.5 | (1) | (1) | 54.3 | (1) | (1) | 61.0 | (1) |
| 1948 | 69.9 | 96.4 | 80.6 | (1) | (1) | 95.6 | 96.3 | 49.6 | 55.5 | (1) | (1) | 58.8 | 46.0 |
| 1949 | 69.7 | 94.0 | 85.7 | (1) | (1) | 94.4 | 95.3 | 50.2 | 50.1 | (1) | (1) | 60.8 | 47.0 |
| 1950 | 71.0 | 94.7 | 87.7 | (1) | (1) | 95.8 | 95.5 | 52.0 | 51.7 | (1) | (1) | 60.7 | 49.5 |
| 1951 | 68.4 | 94.8 | 81.5 | (1) | (1) | 95.0 | 97.1 | 50.1 | 47.1 | (1) | (1) | 60.5 | 47.4 |
| 1952 | 66.6 | 92.9 | 88.2 | (1) | (1) | 93.0 | 93.9 | 49.9 | 53.7 | (1) | (1) | 60.4 | 46.2 |
| 1953 | 66.7 | 94.6 | 85.5 | (5) | 86.5 | 95.9 | 96.1 | 49.7 | 47.7 | (5) | 49.9 | 62.2 | 46.1 |
| 1954 | 65.8 | 91.2 | 80.1 | (5) | 84.9 | 89.5 | 93.7 | 50.2 | 39.9 | (5) | 42.1 | 60.6 | 46.3 |
| 1955 | 68.1 | 94.5 | 81.4 | (5) | 88.4 | 94.8 | 96.7 | 51.3 | 44.4 | (5) | 47.3 | 61.9 | 48.6 |
| 1956 | 68.2 | 93.3 | 80.5 | (5) | 84.9 | 90.7 | 96.2 | 51.7 | 46.8 | (5) | 49.6 | 60.4 | 49.5 |
| 1957 | 66.9 | 94.0 | 79.6 | (5) | 83.2 | 92.8 | 96.4 | 48.7 | 39.2 | (5) | 44.1 | 61.6 | 45.6 |
| 1958 | 68.0 | 94.1 | 80.6 | (5) | 84.5 | 93.0 | 96.3 | 50.2 | 43.6 | (5) | 45.7 | 59.3 | 48.2 |
| 1959 | 67.6 | 94.1 | 76.4 | (5) | 80.1 | 92.9 | 96.8 | 48.8 | 42.1 | (5) | 44.7 | 57.5 | 46.8 |
| 1960 | 68.6 | 94.4 | 77.2 | (5) | 81.8 | 92.8 | 97.1 | 50.1 | 49.3 | (5) | 50.8 | 60.3 | 46.7 |
| 1961 | 68.5 | 92.7 | 72.8 | (5) | 76.8 | 90.1 | 96.0 | 51.1 | 46.1 | (5) | 50.9 | 60.2 | 48.4 |
| 1962 | 68.8 | 93.8 | 74.3 | (5) | 76.4 | 92.3 | 96.3 | 51.7 | 38.5 | (5) | 43.2 | 61.7 | 49.8 |
| 1963 | 68.6 | 93.9 | 74.2 | (5) | 78.2 | 93.5 | 95.9 | 51.5 | 40.3 | (5) | 43.8 | 61.3 | 49.3 |
| 1964 | 69.8 | 93.7 | 68.8 | (5) | 72.5 | 92.0 | 96.6 | 53.0 | 41.1 | (5) | 42.6 | 60.2 | 51.8 |
| 1965 | 70.2 | 93.7 | 78.2 | (5) | 81.4 | 91.2 | 96.3 | 54.0 | 41.3 | (5) | 42.9 | 63.3 | 51.8 |
| 1966 | 70.3 | 93.7 | 69.3 | (5) | 73.5 | 88.6 | 97.7 | 55.2 | 41.6 | (5) | 44.1 | 62.9 | 53.6 |

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[1] Not available.
[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B–1.
[4] Percent of the civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.
[5] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14- to 15-year-olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

## Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–66

| School enrollment and year | Both sexes, 14 to 24 years | Male | | | | | | Female | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years | | | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years |
| | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | | | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 | | |
| | Employed (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 1,600 | 1,090 | 724 | (1) | (1) | 141 | 225 | 510 | 381 | (1) | (1) | 84 | 45 |
| 1948 | 1,794 | 1,219 | 814 | (1) | (1) | 182 | 223 | 575 | 466 | (1) | (1) | 61 | 46 |
| 1949 | 1,761 | 1,113 | 724 | (1) | (1) | 156 | 234 | 648 | 477 | (1) | (1) | 105 | 67 |
| 1950 | 2,331 | 1,522 | 1,028 | (1) | (1) | 232 | 262 | 809 | 585 | (1) | (1) | 139 | 86 |
| 1951 | 2,208 | 1,370 | 968 | (1) | (1) | 166 | 236 | 838 | 638 | (1) | (1) | 124 | 76 |
| 1952 | 1,914 | 1,206 | 910 | (1) | (1) | 186 | 170 | 648 | 492 | (1) | (1) | 74 | 82 |
| 1953[2] | 1,822 | 1,179 | 815 | 375 | 440 | 201 | 163 | 643 | 467 | 197 | 270 | 89 | 87 |
| 1954 | 2,206 | 1,396 | 964 | 441 | 523 | 187 | 245 | 810 | 573 | 199 | 374 | 121 | 116 |
| 1955 | 2,556 | 1,700 | 1,124 | 491 | 633 | 297 | 279 | 856 | 598 | 263 | 335 | 124 | 134 |
| 1956 | 2,856 | 1,792 | 1,131 | 530 | 610 | 299 | 362 | 1,064 | 733 | 306 | 427 | 158 | 173 |
| 1957[2] | 2,983 | 1,869 | 1,202 | 556 | 646 | 275 | 392 | 1,114 | 750 | 298 | 452 | 161 | 203 |
| 1958 | 2,886 | 1,866 | 1,171 | 475 | 696 | 281 | 414 | 1,020 | 677 | 280 | 397 | 198 | 145 |
| 1959 | 3,145 | 1,971 | 1,250 | 549 | 701 | 299 | 422 | 1,174 | 818 | 347 | 471 | 185 | 171 |
| 1960[2] | 3,150 | 2,006 | 1,278 | 561 | 717 | 332 | 396 | 1,144 | 783 | 326 | 457 | 197 | 164 |
| 1961 | 3,255 | 2,025 | 1,211 | 571 | 640 | 343 | 471 | 1,230 | 831 | 423 | 408 | 216 | 183 |
| 1962[2] | 3,562 | 2,282 | 1,317 | 617 | 700 | 382 | 583 | 1,280 | 870 | 392 | 478 | 181 | 229 |
| 1963 | 3,841 | 2,485 | 1,446 | 580 | 866 | 393 | 646 | 1,356 | 904 | 320 | 584 | 223 | 229 |
| 1964 | 3,933 | 2,508 | 1,501 | 571 | 930 | 408 | 599 | 1,425 | 961 | 379 | 582 | 215 | 249 |
| 1965 | 4,652 | 2,920 | 1,657 | 656 | 1,001 | 536 | 727 | 1,732 | 1,111 | 403 | 708 | 326 | 295 |
| 1966 | 4,914 | 3,044 | 1,657 | 564 | 1,093 | 634 | 753 | 1,870 | 1,134 | 395 | 739 | 404 | 332 |
| NOT ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 10,161 | 6,009 | 719 | (1) | (1) | 1,110 | 4,180 | 4,152 | 422 | (1) | (1) | 1,074 | 2,656 |
| 1948 | 9,903 | 5,969 | 627 | (1) | (1) | 1,154 | 4,187 | 3,934 | 392 | (1) | (1) | 993 | 2,548 |
| 1949 | 9,221 | 5,466 | 521 | (1) | (1) | 1,066 | 3,878 | 3,754 | 349 | (1) | (1) | 948 | 2,457 |
| 1950 | 9,527 | 5,679 | 515 | (1) | (1) | 1,100 | 4,064 | 3,848 | 342 | (1) | (1) | 904 | 2,601 |
| 1951 | 8,532 | 4,864 | 474 | (1) | (1) | 1,010 | 3,380 | 3,668 | 264 | (1) | (1) | 924 | 2,480 |
| 1952 | 7,800 | 4,230 | 506 | (1) | (1) | 924 | 2,800 | 3,570 | 316 | (1) | (1) | 894 | 2,360 |
| 1953[2] | 7,499 | 4,033 | 442 | 63 | 379 | 971 | 2,620 | 3,466 | 278 | 21 | 258 | 909 | 2,279 |
| 1954 | 7,070 | 3,702 | 343 | 44 | 299 | 892 | 2,467 | 3,368 | 206 | 25 | 181 | 862 | 2,300 |
| 1955 | 7,651 | 4,141 | 357 | 52 | 305 | 908 | 2,876 | 3,510 | 270 | 21 | 249 | 951 | 2,289 |
| 1956 | 7,593 | 4,135 | 360 | 31 | 329 | 845 | 2,930 | 3,458 | 255 | 18 | 237 | 893 | 2,310 |
| 1957[2] | 7,399 | 4,135 | 304 | 24 | 280 | 844 | 2,987 | 3,264 | 209 | 16 | 193 | 933 | 2,122 |
| 1958 | 7,368 | 4,073 | 303 | 48 | 255 | 771 | 2,999 | 3,295 | 222 | 22 | 200 | 845 | 2,228 |
| 1959 | 7,702 | 4,445 | 277 | 28 | 249 | 865 | 3,303 | 3,257 | 212 | 17 | 195 | 826 | 2,219 |
| 1960[2] | 8,017 | 4,604 | 312 | 21 | 291 | 898 | 3,394 | 3,413 | 237 | 16 | 221 | 922 | 2,254 |
| 1961 | 8,199 | 4,660 | 276 | 24 | 252 | 945 | 3,439 | 3,539 | 213 | 19 | 194 | 1,003 | 2,323 |
| 1962[2] | 8,275 | 4,616 | 258 | 22 | 236 | 927 | 3,431 | 3,659 | 193 | 12 | 181 | 991 | 2,475 |
| 1963 | 8,292 | 4,677 | 234 | 17 | 217 | 904 | 3,539 | 3,615 | 152 | 10 | 142 | 964 | 2,499 |
| 1964 | 8,930 | 5,006 | 234 | 10 | 224 | 954 | 3,818 | 3,924 | 174 | 15 | 159 | 961 | 2,789 |
| 1965 | 9,359 | 5,169 | 300 | 14 | 286 | 1,104 | 3,765 | 4,190 | 159 | 11 | 148 | 1,119 | 2,912 |
| 1966 | 9,585 | 5,131 | 225 | 17 | 208 | 1,092 | 3,814 | 4,454 | 153 | 10 | 143 | 1,210 | 3,091 |
| | Unemployed (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ENROLLED | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 20 | (1) | (1) | 8 | (1) | (1) | 12 | (1) | (1) | 5 | (1) |
| 1948 | 61 | 46 | 19 | (1) | (1) | 9 | 19 | 15 | 10 | (1) | (1) | 3 | 2 |
| 1949 | 116 | 84 | 51 | (1) | (1) | 8 | 25 | 32 | 25 | (1) | (1) | 2 | 6 |
| 1950 | 89 | 53 | 38 | (1) | (1) | 13 | 2 | 36 | 29 | (1) | (1) | 6 | 2 |
| 1951 | 82 | 58 | 44 | (1) | (1) | 6 | 8 | 24 | 18 | (1) | (1) | 2 | 4 |
| 1952 | 66 | 44 | 36 | (1) | (1) | 6 | 2 | 22 | 20 | (1) | (1) | 2 | 0 |
| 1953[2] | 66 | 47 | 40 | 7 | 33 | 5 | 2 | 18 | 7 | 0 | 7 | 7 | 5 |
| 1954 | 126 | 100 | 67 | 21 | 46 | 13 | 20 | 26 | 19 | 4 | 15 | 5 | 2 |
| 1955 | 150 | 101 | 61 | 19 | 42 | 33 | 7 | 49 | 36 | 19 | 17 | 11 | 2 |
| 1956 | 151 | 102 | 62 | 17 | 45 | 20 | 20 | 49 | 41 | 4 | 37 | 4 | 4 |
| 1957[2] | 178 | 121 | 74 | 26 | 48 | 24 | 23 | 57 | 45 | 12 | 33 | 6 | 6 |
| 1958 | 230 | 171 | 105 | 39 | 66 | 28 | 38 | 59 | 40 | 5 | 35 | 13 | 6 |
| 1959 | 228 | 157 | 103 | 25 | 78 | 31 | 23 | 71 | 54 | 10 | 44 | 11 | 6 |
| 1960[2] | 240 | 165 | 108 | 19 | 89 | 39 | 18 | 75 | 58 | 10 | 48 | 13 | 4 |
| 1961 | 296 | 198 | 141 | 46 | 95 | 39 | 18 | 98 | 69 | 16 | 53 | 19 | 10 |
| 1962[2] | 310 | 199 | 120 | 34 | 86 | 41 | 38 | 111 | 70 | 21 | 49 | 22 | 19 |
| 1963 | 379 | 226 | 151 | 28 | 123 | 40 | 35 | 153 | 103 | 28 | 75 | 30 | 20 |
| 1964 | 382 | 224 | 145 | 41 | 104 | 38 | 41 | 158 | 110 | 9 | 101 | 26 | 22 |
| 1965 | 423 | 293 | 181 | 42 | 139 | 75 | 37 | 130 | 74 | 7 | 67 | 34 | 22 |
| 1966 | 370 | 232 | 151 | 40 | 111 | 56 | 25 | 138 | 84 | 12 | 72 | 43 | 11 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–66—Continued

| School enrollment and year | Both sexes, 14 to 24 years | Male |  |  |  |  |  | Female |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years |  |  | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years | Total, 14 to 24 years | 14 to 17 years |  |  | 18 and 19 years | 20 to 24 years |
|  |  |  | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 |  |  |  | Total | 14 and 15 | 16 and 17 |  |  |
|  | Unemployed (thousands)—Continued |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NOT ENROLLED |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 89 | (1) | (1) | 89 | (1) | (1) | 42 | (1) | (1) | 54 | (1) |
| 1948 | 519 | 335 | 53 | (1) | (1) | 94 | 189 | 184 | 29 | (1) | (1) | 48 | 107 |
| 1949 | 1,085 | 714 | 104 | (1) | (1) | 146 | 464 | 371 | 50 | (1) | (1) | 114 | 207 |
| 1950 | 522 | 279 | 63 | (1) | (1) | 72 | 144 | 243 | 38 | (1) | (1) | 74 | 131 |
| 1951 | 388 | 200 | 38 | (1) | (1) | 48 | 114 | 188 | 32 | (1) | (1) | 60 | 96 |
| 1952 | 394 | 208 | 60 | (1) | (1) | 36 | 112 | 186 | 34 | (1) | (1) | 66 | 86 |
| 1953 [2] | 324 | 171 | 58 | 2 | 56 | 48 | 66 | 152 | 32 | 2 | 30 | 50 | 71 |
| 1954 | 621 | 342 | 64 | 8 | 56 | 63 | 215 | 279 | 51 | 4 | 47 | 95 | 133 |
| 1955 | 504 | 259 | 71 | 2 | 69 | 57 | 131 | 245 | 29 | 2 | 27 | 74 | 142 |
| 1956 | 480 | 255 | 62 | 9 | 53 | 47 | 146 | 225 | 27 | 5 | 22 | 66 | 132 |
| 1957 [3] | 576 | 372 | 58 | 7 | 51 | 103 | 211 | 203 | 31 | 0 | 32 | 60 | 112 |
| 1958 | 928 | 570 | 96 | 8 | 88 | 153 | 321 | 358 | 62 | 4 | 58 | 104 | 192 |
| 1959 | 828 | 486 | 89 | 3 | 86 | 154 | 243 | 342 | 38 | 3 | 35 | 125 | 179 |
| 1960 [2] | 896 | 520 | 71 | 6 | 65 | 177 | 272 | 376 | 60 | 8 | 52 | 138 | 178 |
| 1961 | 1,031 | 568 | 77 | 8 | 69 | 170 | 321 | 463 | 50 | 1 | 49 | 170 | 243 |
| 1962 [2] | 874 | 455 | 46 | 4 | 42 | 138 | 271 | 419 | 42 | 0 | 42 | 139 | 238 |
| 1963 | 1,022 | 481 | 59 | 3 | 56 | 157 | 265 | 541 | 75 | 0 | 75 | 169 | 297 |
| 1964 | 962 | 484 | 39 | 0 | 39 | 146 | 299 | 478 | 59 | 3 | 56 | 174 | 245 |
| 1965 | 772 | 349 | 56 | 0 | 56 | 128 | 165 | 423 | 46 | 0 | 46 | 178 | 199 |
| 1966 | 748 | 283 | 51 | 1 | 50 | 100 | 132 | 465 | 55 | 2 | 53 | 175 | 235 |
|  | Unemployment rate |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ENROLLED |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 2.7 | (1) | (1) | 5.4 | (1) | (1) | 3.1 | (1) | (1) | 5.6 | (1) |
| 1948 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 2.3 | (1) | (1) | 4.7 | 7.9 | 2.5 | 2.1 | (1) | (1) | (4) | (4) |
| 1949 | 6.2 | 7.0 | 6.6 | (1) | (1) | 4.9 | 9.7 | 4.7 | 5.0 | (1) | (1) | 1.9 | (4) |
| 1950 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.6 | (1) | (1) | 5.3 | .8 | 4.3 | 4.7 | (1) | (1) | 4.2 | (4) |
| 1951 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 4.3 | (1) | (1) | 3.5 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 2.7 | (1) | (1) | 1.6 | (4) |
| 1952 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.8 | (1) | (1) | 3.1 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | (1) | (1) | (4) | (4) |
| 1953 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 1.8 | 7.0 | 2.4 | 1.2 | 2.7 | 1.5 | 0 | 2.5 | (4) | (4) |
| 1954 | 5.4 | 6.7 | 6.5 | 4.5 | 8.1 | 6.5 | 7.5 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 2.0 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 1.7 |
| 1955 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 6.2 | 10.0 | 2.4 | 5.4 | 5.7 | 6.7 | 4.8 | 8.1 | 1.5 |
| 1956 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 3.1 | 7.0 | 6.3 | 5.2 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 1.3 | 8.0 | 2.5 | 2.3 |
| 1957 [3] | 5.6 | 6.1 | 5.8 | 4.5 | 6.9 | 8.0 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 3.9 | 6.8 | 3.6 | 2.9 |
| 1958 | 7.4 | 8.4 | 8.2 | 7.6 | 8.7 | 9.1 | 8.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 1.8 | 8.1 | 6.2 | 4.0 |
| 1959 | 6.8 | 7.4 | 7.6 | 4.4 | 10.0 | 9.4 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 2.8 | 8.5 | 5.6 | 3.4 |
| 1960 | 7.1 | 7.6 | 7.8 | 3.3 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 4.3 | 6.2 | 6.9 | 3.0 | 9.5 | 6.2 | 2.4 |
| 1961 | 8.3 | 8.9 | 10.4 | 7.5 | 12.9 | 10.2 | 3.7 | 7.4 | 7.7 | 3.6 | 11.5 | 8.1 | 5.2 |
| 1962 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 8.4 | 5.2 | 10.9 | 9.7 | 6.1 | 8.0 | 7.4 | 5.1 | 9.3 | 10.8 | 7.7 |
| 1963 | 9.0 | 8.3 | 9.5 | 4.6 | 12.4 | 9.2 | 5.1 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 8.0 | 11.4 | 11.9 | 8.0 |
| 1964 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 8.8 | 6.7 | 10.1 | 8.5 | 6.4 | 10.0 | 10.3 | 2.3 | 14.8 | 10.8 | 8.1 |
| 1965 | 8.3 | 9.1 | 9.8 | 6.0 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 4.8 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 1.7 | 8.6 | 9.4 | 6.9 |
| 1966 | 7.5 | 7.6 | 8.4 | 6.6 | 9.2 | 8.1 | 3.2 | 7.4 | 6.9 | 2.9 | 8.9 | 9.6 | 3.2 |
| NOT ENROLLED |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1947 | (1) | (1) | 11.0 | (1) | (1) | 7.4 | (1) | (1) | 9.1 | (1) | (1) | 5.0 | (1) |
| 1948 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 7.8 | (1) | (1) | 7.5 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 6.9 | (1) | (1) | 4.6 | 4.0 |
| 1949 | 10.5 | 11.6 | 16.6 | (1) | (1) | 12.0 | 10.7 | 9.0 | 12.5 | (1) | (1) | 10.7 | 7.8 |
| 1950 | 5.2 | 4.7 | 10.9 | (1) | (1) | 6.1 | 3.4 | 5.9 | 10.0 | (1) | (1) | 7.6 | 4.8 |
| 1951 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 7.4 | (1) | (1) | 4.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 | 10.8 | (1) | (1) | 6.1 | 3.7 |
| 1952 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 10.6 | (1) | (1) | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 9.7 | (1) | (1) | 6.9 | 3.5 |
| 1953 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 11.6 | (4) | 12.9 | 4.7 | 2.5 | 4.2 | 10.3 | (4) | 10.4 | 5.2 | 3.0 |
| 1954 | 8.1 | 8.5 | 15.7 | (4) | 15.8 | 6.6 | 8.0 | 7.7 | 19.8 | (4) | 20.6 | 9.9 | 5.5 |
| 1955 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 16.6 | (4) | 18.4 | 5.9 | 4.4 | 6.5 | 9.7 | (4) | 9.8 | 7.2 | 5.8 |
| 1956 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 14.7 | (4) | 13.9 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 6.1 | 9.6 | (4) | 8.5 | 6.9 | 5.4 |
| 1957 [3] | 7.2 | 8.3 | 16.0 | (4) | 15.4 | 10.9 | 6.6 | 5.9 | 12.9 | (4) | 14.2 | 6.0 | 5.0 |
| 1958 | 11.2 | 12.3 | 24.1 | (4) | 25.7 | 16.6 | 9.7 | 9.8 | 21.8 | (4) | 22.5 | 11.0 | 7.9 |
| 1959 | 9.7 | 9.9 | 24.3 | (4) | 25.7 | 15.1 | 6.9 | 9.5 | 15.2 | (4) | 15.2 | 13.1 | 7.5 |
| 1960 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 18.5 | (4) | 18.3 | 16.5 | 7.4 | 9.9 | 20.2 | (4) | 19.0 | 13.0 | 7.3 |
| 1961 | 11.2 | 10.9 | 21.8 | (4) | 21.5 | 15.2 | 8.5 | 11.6 | 19.0 | (4) | 20.2 | 14.5 | 9.5 |
| 1962 | 9.6 | 9.0 | 15.1 | (4) | 15.1 | 13.0 | 7.3 | 10.3 | 17.9 | (4) | 18.8 | 12.3 | 8.8 |
| 1963 | 11.0 | 9.3 | 20.1 | (4) | 20.5 | 14.8 | 7.0 | 13.0 | 33.0 | (4) | 34.6 | 14.9 | 10.6 |
| 1964 | 9.7 | 8.8 | 14.3 | (4) | 14.8 | 13.3 | 7.3 | 10.9 | 25.3 | (4) | 26.0 | 15.3 | 8.1 |
| 1965 | 7.6 | 6.3 | 15.7 | (4) | 16.4 | 10.4 | 4.2 | 9.2 | 22.4 | (4) | 23.7 | 13.7 | 6.4 |
| 1966 | 7.8 | 5.5 | 18.5 | (4) | 19.4 | 8.4 | 3.3 | 10.4 | 26.4 | (4) | 27.0 | 12.6 | 7.1 |

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[1] Not available.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B–1.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14- to 15-year-olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

## Table B–8. Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and of School Dropouts as of October of Year of Graduation or Dropout, by Sex, Marital Status of Women, and Color, 1959–66

[Persons 16 to 24 years of age; numbers in thousands]

| Item | High school graduates | | | | | | | School dropouts | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Civilian noninstitutional population | Civilian labor force | | | | | Not in labor force | Civilian noninstitutional population | Civilian labor force | | | | | Not in labor force |
| | | Total | | Employed | Unemployed | | | | Total | | Employed | Unemployed | | |
| | | Number | Percent of population | | Number | Percent of civilian labor force | | | Number | Percent of population | | Number | Percent of civilian labor force | |
| **1959 [1]** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 790 | 634 | 80.2 | 549 | 85 | 13.5 | 156 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| Male | 304 | 279 | 91.7 | 239 | 40 | 14.3 | 25 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| Female | 486 | 355 | 73.0 | 310 | 45 | 12.8 | 131 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| Single | 418 | 331 | 79.2 | 291 | 40 | 12.1 | 88 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 68 | 24 | (3) | 19 | 5 | (3) | 43 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| **1960 [4]** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 921 | 706 | 76.7 | 599 | 107 | 15.2 | 215 | 344 | 214 | 62.2 | 175 | 39 | 18.2 | 130 |
| Male | 348 | 308 | 88.5 | 262 | 46 | 14.9 | 40 | 165 | 126 | 76.4 | 102 | 24 | 19.0 | 39 |
| Female | 573 | 398 | 69.5 | 337 | 61 | 15.3 | 175 | 179 | 88 | 49.2 | 73 | 15 | (3) | 91 |
| Single | 473 | 359 | 75.9 | 308 | 51 | 14.2 | 114 | 110 | 71 | 64.5 | 60 | 11 | (3) | 39 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 100 | 39 | 39.0 | 29 | 10 | (3) | 61 | 69 | 17 | (3) | 13 | 4 | (3) | 52 |
| White | 848 | 653 | 77.0 | 568 | 85 | 13.0 | 195 | 273 | 163 | 59.7 | 133 | 30 | 18.4 | 110 |
| Nonwhite | 73 | 53 | (3) | 31 | 22 | (3) | 20 | 71 | 51 | (3) | 42 | 9 | (3) | 20 |
| **1961** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 916 | 730 | 79.7 | 599 | 131 | 17.9 | 186 | 354 | 239 | 67.5 | 175 | 64 | 26.8 | 115 |
| Male | 345 | 297 | 86.1 | 242 | 55 | 18.5 | 48 | 179 | 150 | 83.8 | 108 | 42 | 28.0 | 29 |
| Female | 571 | 433 | 75.8 | 357 | 76 | 17.6 | 138 | 175 | 89 | 50.9 | 67 | 22 | (3) | 86 |
| Single | 482 | 392 | 81.3 | 326 | 66 | 16.8 | 90 | 119 | 75 | 63.0 | 55 | 20 | (3) | 44 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 89 | 41 | (3) | 31 | 10 | (3) | 48 | 56 | 14 | (3) | 12 | 2 | (3) | 42 |
| White | 814 | 651 | 80.0 | 545 | 106 | 16.3 | 163 | 283 | 189 | 66.8 | 134 | 55 | 29.1 | 94 |
| Nonwhite | 102 | 79 | 77.4 | 54 | 25 | (3) | 23 | 71 | 50 | (3) | 41 | 9 | (3) | 21 |
| **1962** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 938 | 746 | 79.5 | 641 | 105 | 14.1 | 192 | 285 | 161 | 56.5 | 115 | 46 | 28.6 | 124 |
| Male | 392 | 356 | 90.8 | 305 | 51 | 14.3 | 36 | 126 | 107 | 84.9 | 78 | 29 | 27.1 | 19 |
| Female | 546 | 390 | 71.4 | 336 | 54 | 13.8 | 156 | 159 | 54 | 34.0 | 37 | 17 | (3) | 105 |
| Single | 469 | 352 | 75.1 | 309 | 43 | 12.2 | 117 | 83 | 43 | (3) | 28 | 15 | (3) | 40 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 77 | 38 | (3) | 27 | 11 | (3) | 39 | 76 | 11 | (3) | 9 | 2 | (3) | 65 |
| White | 820 | 657 | 80.1 | 568 | 89 | 13.5 | 163 | 210 | 113 | 53.8 | 83 | 30 | 26.5 | 97 |
| Nonwhite | 118 | 89 | 75.4 | 73 | 16 | (3) | 29 | 75 | 48 | (3) | 32 | 16 | (3) | 27 |
| **1963** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 957 | 755 | 78.9 | 619 | 136 | 18.0 | 202 | 273 | 180 | 65.9 | 123 | 57 | 31.7 | 93 |
| Male | 379 | 340 | 89.7 | 275 | 65 | 19.1 | 39 | 132 | 110 | 83.3 | 85 | 25 | 22.7 | 22 |
| Female | 578 | 415 | 71.8 | 344 | 71 | 17.1 | 163 | 141 | 70 | 49.6 | 38 | 32 | (3) | 71 |
| Single | 489 | 368 | 75.3 | 311 | 57 | 15.5 | 121 | 79 | 50 | (3) | 25 | 25 | (3) | 29 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 89 | 47 | (3) | 33 | 14 | (3) | 42 | 62 | 20 | (3) | 13 | 7 | (3) | 42 |
| White | 879 | 690 | 78.5 | 580 | 110 | 15.9 | 189 | 217 | 151 | 69.6 | 101 | 50 | 33.1 | 66 |
| Nonwhite | 78 | 65 | (3) | 39 | 26 | (3) | 13 | 56 | 29 | (3) | 22 | 7 | (3) | 27 |
| **1964** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 1,108 | 863 | 77.9 | 702 | 161 | 18.7 | 245 | 244 | 152 | 62.3 | 101 | 51 | 33.6 | 92 |
| Male | 427 | 388 | 90.9 | 338 | 50 | 12.9 | 39 | 116 | 97 | 83.6 | 72 | 25 | (3) | 19 |
| Female | 681 | 475 | 69.8 | 364 | 111 | 23.4 | 206 | 128 | 55 | 43.0 | 29 | 26 | (3) | 73 |
| Single | 574 | 432 | 75.3 | 334 | 98 | 22.7 | 142 | 82 | 39 | (3) | 19 | 20 | (3) | 43 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 107 | 43 | 40.2 | 30 | 13 | (3) | 64 | 46 | 16 | (3) | 10 | 6 | (3) | 30 |
| White | 997 | 773 | 77.5 | 644 | 129 | 16.8 | 224 | 203 | 121 | 59.6 | 82 | 39 | 32.2 | 82 |
| Nonwhite | 111 | 90 | 81.1 | 58 | 32 | (3) | 21 | 41 | 31 | (3) | 19 | 12 | (3) | 10 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B-8. Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and of School Dropouts as of October of Year of Graduation or Dropout, by Sex, Marital Status of Women, and Color, 1959–66—Continued

| Item | High school graduates |  |  |  |  |  |  | School dropouts |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Civilian noninstitutional population | Civilian labor force |  |  |  |  | Not in labor force | Civilian noninstitutional population | Civilian labor force |  |  |  |  | Not in labor force |
|  |  | Total |  | Employed | Unemployed |  |  |  | Total |  | Employed | Unemployed |  |  |
|  |  | Number | Percent of population |  | Number | Percent of civilian labor force |  |  | Number | Percent of population |  | Number | Percent of civilian labor force |  |
| **1965** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total | 1,305 | 1,071 | 82.1 | 938 | 133 | 12.4 | 234 | 304 | 183 | 60.2 | 146 | 37 | 20.2 | 121 |
| Male | 536 | 488 | 91.[illegible] | 452 | 36 | 7.4 | 48 | 168 | 133 | 79.2 | 106 | 27 | 20.3 | 35 |
| Female | 769 | 583 | 75.8 | 486 | 97 | 16.6 | 186 | 136 | 50 | 36.8 | 40 | 10 | (3) | 86 |
| Single | 645 | 508 | 78.8 | 425 | 83 | 16.3 | 137 | 83 | 40 | (3) | 33 | 7 | (3) | 43 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 124 | 75 | 60.5 | 61 | 14 | (3) | 49 | 53 | 10 | (3) | 7 | 3 | (3) | 43 |
| White | 1,168 | 963 | 82.4 | 859 | 104 | 10.8 | 205 | 247 | 153 | 61.9 | 122 | 31 | 20.3 | 94 |
| Nonwhite | 137 | 108 | 78.8 | 79 | 29 | 26.9 | 29 | 57 | 30 | (3) | 24 | 6 | (3) | 27 |
| **1966** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total | 1,302 | 986 | 75.7 | 846 | 140 | 14.2 | 317 | 266 | 172 | [illegible] | 141 | 31 | 18.0 | 94 |
| Male | 498 | 435 | 87.3 | 397 | 38 | 8.7 | 63 | 152 | 124 | 81.6 | 101 | 23 | 18.5 | 28 |
| Female | 805 | 551 | 68.4 | 449 | 102 | 18.5 | 254 | 114 | 48 | 42.1 | 40 | 8 | (3) | 66 |
| Single | 668 | 485 | 72.6 | 399 | 86 | 17.7 | 183 | 75 | 43 | (3) | 35 | 8 | (3) | 32 |
| Married, widowed, divorced, separated | 137 | 66 | 48.2 | 50 | 16 | (3) | 71 | 39 | 5 | (3) | 5 | ------ | (3) | 34 |
| White | 1,160 | 893 | 77.0 | 778 | 115 | 12.9 | 267 | 218 | 141 | 64.7 | 119 | 22 | 15.6 | 77 |
| Nonwhite | 143 | 93 | 65.0 | 68 | 25 | (3) | 50 | 48 | 31 | (3) | 22 | 9 | (3) | 17 |

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[1] Data not available by color.
[2] Not available.
[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.
[4] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1960 and are therefore not strictly comparable with data for 1959.

## Table B–9. Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Color, Selected Dates, 1952–67

| Sex, color, and date | Total, 18 years and over (thousands) | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | Median school years completed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Elementary | | High school | | College | | School years not reported | |
| | | | Less than 5 years [1] | 5 to 8 years | 1 to 3 years | 4 years | 1 to 3 years | 4 years or more | | |
| **BOTH SEXES** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Total* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | 60,772 | 100.0 | 7.3 | 30.2 | 18.5 | 26.6 | 8.3 | 7.9 | 1.2 | 10.9 |
| March 1957 | 64,384 | 100.0 | 6.1 | 26.8 | 19.1 | 29.1 | 8.5 | 9.0 | 1.4 | 11.6 |
| March 1959 | 65,842 | 100.0 | 5.2 | 24.8 | 19.5 | 30.3 | 9.2 | 9.5 | 1.6 | 12.0 |
| March 1962 [2] | 67,988 | 100.0 | 4.6 | 22.4 | 19.3 | 32.1 | 10.7 | 11.0 | (3) | 12.1 |
| March 1964 | 69,926 | 100.0 | 3.7 | 20.9 | 19.2 | 34.5 | 10.6 | 11.2 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1965 | 71,129 | 100.0 | 3.7 | 19.6 | 19.2 | 35.5 | 10.5 | 11.6 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1966 | 71,[illegible]8 | 100.0 | 3.3 | 18.9 | 19.0 | 36.3 | 10.8 | 11.8 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1967 | 73,218 | 100.0 | 3.1 | 17.9 | 18.7 | 36.6 | 11.8 | 12.0 | (3) | 12.3 |
| *White* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | (4) | 100.0 | 5.2 | 29.3 | 18.7 | 28.3 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 1.2 | 11.4 |
| March 1957 | (4) | 100.0 | 4.3 | 25.8 | 19.0 | 30.8 | 9.0 | 9.7 | 1.2 | 12.1 |
| March 1959 | 58,726 | 100.0 | 3.7 | 23.6 | 19.4 | 32.0 | 9.7 | 10.2 | 1.4 | 12.1 |
| March 1962 [2] | 60,451 | 100.0 | 3.3 | 21.4 | 18.8 | 33.5 | 11.3 | 11.8 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1964 | 62,213 | 100.0 | 2.7 | 19.8 | 18.5 | 36.0 | 11.1 | 11.9 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1965 | 63,261 | 100.0 | 2.7 | 18.9 | 18.4 | 36.8 | 11.0 | 12.2 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1966 | 63,958 | 100.0 | 2.3 | 17.8 | 18.3 | 37.7 | 11.2 | 12.5 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1967 | 65,076 | 100.0 | 2.2 | 16.9 | 18.1 | 37.7 | 12.4 | 12.8 | (3) | 12.3 |
| *Nonwhite* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | (4) | 100.0 | 26.7 | 38.7 | 15.9 | 10.8 | 3.7 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 7.6 |
| March 1957 | (4) | 100.0 | 21.2 | 34.9 | 19.3 | 14.8 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 8.4 |
| March 1959 | 7,116 | 100.0 | 17.9 | 34.3 | 20.6 | 15.8 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 3.1 | 8.7 |
| March 1962 [2] | 7,537 | 100.0 | 15.4 | 29.8 | 23.2 | 21.0 | 5.7 | 4.8 | (3) | 9.6 |
| March 1964 | 7,713 | 100.0 | 11.6 | 29.2 | 24.7 | 22.2 | 6.6 | 5.7 | (3) | 10.1 |
| March 1965 | 7,868 | 100.0 | 11.8 | 25.7 | 24.9 | 24.4 | 6.1 | 7.0 | (3) | 10.5 |
| March 1966 | 8,000 | 100.0 | 11.1 | 26.7 | 24.3 | 24.8 | 7.1 | 5.8 | (3) | 10.5 |
| March 1967 | 8,142 | 100.0 | 10.4 | 25.5 | 23.7 | 27.5 | 7.2 | 5.8 | (3) | 10.8 |
| **MALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Total* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | 41,684 | 100.0 | 8.2 | 32.4 | 18.6 | 23.3 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 1.5 | 10.4 |
| March 1957 [5] | 43,721 | 100.0 | 7.0 | 28.8 | 19.3 | 25.8 | 8.2 | 9.4 | 1.5 | 11.1 |
| March 1959 | 44,286 | 100.0 | 6.1 | 26.6 | 19.9 | 26.7 | 8.9 | 10.3 | 1.6 | 11.5 |
| March 1962 [2] | 45,011 | 100.0 | 5.4 | 24.2 | 19.6 | 28.7 | 10.4 | 11.7 | (3) | 12.0 |
| March 1964 | 45,600 | 100.0 | 4.4 | 22.5 | 19.4 | 31.1 | 10.6 | 12.1 | (3) | 12.1 |
| March 1965 | 46,258 | 100.0 | 4.4 | 21.3 | 19.4 | 32.0 | 10.5 | 12.4 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1966 | 46,356 | 100.0 | 3.9 | 20.6 | 19.3 | 32.6 | 10.7 | 12.8 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1967 | 46,571 | 100.0 | 3.7 | 19.7 | 18.8 | 32.9 | 11.7 | 13.2 | (3) | 12.3 |
| *White* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | (4) | 100.0 | 6.3 | 31.9 | 18.9 | 24.6 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 1.4 | 10.8 |
| March 1959 | 39,966 | 100.0 | 4.3 | 25.7 | 19.9 | 28.2 | 9.5 | 11.0 | 1.4 | 11.9 |
| March 1962 [2] | 40,503 | 100.0 | 3.8 | 23.4 | 19.3 | 29.9 | 11.0 | 12.6 | (3) | 12.1 |
| March 1964 | 41,028 | 100.0 | 3.2 | 21.7 | 18.8 | 32.4 | 11.1 | 12.7 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1965 | 41,652 | 100.0 | 3.2 | 20.7 | 18.8 | 33.2 | 11.0 | 13.1 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1966 | 41,706 | 100.0 | 2.8 | 19.8 | 18.7 | 33.8 | 11.1 | 13.7 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1967 | 41,911 | 100.0 | 2.6 | 18.8 | 18.3 | 33.9 | 12.3 | 14.1 | (3) | 12.3 |
| *Nonwhite* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 [2] | (4) | 100.0 | 29.8 | 38.3 | 15.0 | 9.5 | 3.4 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 7.2 |
| March 1959 | 4,330 | 100.0 | 21.5 | 34.6 | 19.4 | 13.3 | 4.1 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 8.3 |
| March 1962 [2] | 4,508 | 100.0 | 19.3 | 31.2 | 22.2 | 18.3 | 5.4 | 3.6 | (3) | 9.0 |
| March 1964 | 4,572 | 100.0 | 14.8 | 29.9 | 24.5 | 19.1 | 5.7 | 6.1 | (3) | 9.7 |
| March 1965 | 4,606 | 100.0 | 15.4 | 26.4 | 24.4 | 21.4 | 6.0 | 6.4 | (3) | 10.0 |
| March 1966 | 4,650 | 100.0 | 14.1 | 28.0 | 24.3 | 21.9 | 6.6 | 5.1 | (3) | 10.0 |
| March 1967 | 4,660 | 100.0 | 13.1 | 27.3 | 23.3 | 24.4 | 6.7 | 5.3 | (3) | 10.2 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B–9. Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Color, Selected Dates, 1952–67—Continued

| Sex, color, and date | Total, 18 years and over (thousands) | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Elementary | | High school | | College | | School years not reported | Median school years completed |
| | | | Less than 5 years[1] | 5 to 8 years | 1 to 3 years | 4 years | 1 to 3 years | 4 years or more | | |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Total* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952[2] | 19,088 | 100.0 | 5.4 | 25.4 | 18.2 | 33.8 | 8.8 | 7.7 | .6 | 12.0 |
| March 1957[5] | 20,663 | 100.0 | 4.2 | 22.6 | 18.6 | 36.1 | 9.1 | 8.2 | 1.2 | 12.1 |
| March 1959 | 21,556 | 100.0 | 3.5 | 21.1 | 18.8 | 37.6 | 9.6 | 7.9 | 1.4 | 12.2 |
| March 1962[2] | 22,977 | 100.0 | 3.0 | 18.8 | 18.8 | 38.7 | 11.2 | 9.5 | (3) | 12.2 |
| March 1964 | 24,326 | 100.0 | 2.4 | 17.8 | 18.8 | 40.9 | 10.6 | 9.5 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1965 | 24,871 | 100.0 | 2.4 | 16.6 | 18.7 | 41.9 | 10.4 | 10.0 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1966 | 25,602 | 100.0 | 2.1 | 15.7 | 18.4 | 43.0 | 11.0 | 9.9 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1967 | 26,647 | 100.0 | 2.1 | 14.8 | 18.5 | 42.9 | 11.8 | 9.9 | (3) | 12.3 |
| *White* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952[2] | (4) | 100.0 | 2.9 | 23.4 | 18.4 | 36.9 | 9.6 | 8.3 | .6 | 12.1 |
| March 1959 | 18,770 | 100.0 | 2.2 | 19.2 | 18.3 | 40.2 | 10.3 | 8.5 | 1.3 | 12.2 |
| March 1962[2] | 19,948 | 100.0 | 2.1 | 17.4 | 17.9 | 40.8 | 11.9 | 10.0 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1964 | 21,185 | 100.0 | 1.8 | 16.2 | 17.8 | 43.0 | 11.0 | 10.1 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1965 | 21,609 | 100.0 | 1.7 | 15.3 | 17.7 | 43.9 | 11.0 | 10.3 | (3) | 12.3 |
| March 1966 | 22,252 | 100.0 | 1.3 | 14.4 | 17.5 | 45.1 | 11.4 | 10.3 | (3) | 12.4 |
| March 1967 | 23,165 | 100.0 | 1.3 | 13.5 | 17.6 | 44.7 | 12.4 | 10.4 | (3) | 12.4 |
| *Nonwhite* | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 1952[2] | (4) | 100.0 | 22.4 | 39.2 | 17.1 | 12.6 | 4.0 | 3.6 | 1.1 | 8.1 |
| March 1959 | 2,786 | 100.0 | 12.2 | 33.9 | 22.5 | 19.7 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 2.2 | 9.4 |
| March 1962[2] | 3,029 | 100.0 | 9.8 | 27.8 | 24.8 | 24.9 | 6.0 | 6.7 | (3) | 10.5 |
| March 1964 | 3,141 | 100.0 | 7.0 | 28.2 | 25.1 | 26.6 | 7.8 | 5.3 | (3) | 10.8 |
| March 1965 | 3,262 | 100.0 | 6.7 | 24.9 | 25.7 | 28.6 | 6.3 | 7.8 | (3) | 11.1 |
| March 1966 | 3,350 | 100.0 | 7.0 | 24.9 | 24.4 | 28.9 | 7.9 | 6.9 | (3) | 11.2 |
| March 1967 | 3,482 | 100.0 | 6.9 | 23.1 | 24.2 | 31.6 | 7.9 | 6.4 | (3) | 11.5 |

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[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

[2] See footnote 1, table A-1.

[3] Data for persons whose educational attainment was not reported were distributed among the other categories.

[4] Not available; data published as percent distribution only.

[5] Data by color not available for March 1957.

## Table B–10. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 18 Years and Over, by Employment Status and Sex, Selected Dates, 1952–67

| Sex and date | Total, 18 years and over | Labor force | | | | | Not in labor force |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Employed | | | Unemployed | |
| | | | Total | Agriculture | Nonagriculture | | |
| **Both Sexes** | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 10.6 | 10.9 | 10.9 | (1) | (1) | 10.1 | 10.0 |
| March 1957 | 11.0 | 11.6 | 11.7 | (1) | (1) | 9.4 | 10.2 |
| March 1959 | 11.4 | 12.0 | 12.0 | 8.6 | 12.1 | 9.9 | 10.5 |
| March 1962 | 11.9 | 12.1 | 12.1 | 8.7 | 12.2 | 10.6 | 10.7 |
| March 1964 | 12.0 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 8.8 | 12.2 | 10.9 | 10.9 |
| March 1965 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 8.8 | 12.3 | 11.1 | 11.1 |
| March 1966 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 8.9 | 12.3 | 11.2 | 11.2 |
| March 1967 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 9.0 | 12.3 | 11.4 | 11.3 |
| **Male** | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 10.1 | 10.4 | 10.4 | (1) | (1) | 8.8 | 8.5 |
| March 1957 | 10.7 | 11.1 | 11.2 | (1) | (1) | 8.9 | 8.5 |
| March 1959 | 11.1 | 11.5 | 11.7 | 8.6 | 12.0 | 9.5 | 8.5 |
| March 1962 | 11.6 | 12.0 | 12.1 | 8.7 | 12.1 | 10.0 | 8.7 |
| March 1964 | 12.0 | 12.1 | 12.1 | 8.8 | 12.2 | 10.3 | 8.7 |
| March 1965 | 12.0 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 8.7 | 12.2 | 10.6 | 8.8 |
| March 1966 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 8.8 | 12.3 | 10.6 | 8.9 |
| March 1967 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 8.9 | 12.3 | 10.7 | 9.0 |
| **Female** | | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 11.0 | 12.0 | 12.0 | (1) | (1) | 11.5 | 10.4 |
| March 1957 | 11.4 | 12.1 | 12.1 | (1) | (1) | 10.4 | 10.7 |
| March 1959 | 11.7 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 8.8 | 12.2 | 10.7 | 10.9 |
| March 1962 | 12.0 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 9.4 | 12.3 | 11.5 | 11.2 |
| March 1964 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 9.5 | 12.3 | 11.9 | 11.5 |
| March 1965 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 9.4 | 12.3 | 11.9 | 11.7 |
| March 1966 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 10.6 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 11.7 |
| March 1967 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 11.3 | 12.4 | 12.0 | 11.9 |

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[1] Not available.

## Table B–11. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Age, Selected Dates, 1952–67

| Sex and date | 18 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Both Sexes** | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.4 | 8.8 | | 8.3 |
| March 1957 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.0 | 9.5 | | 8.5 |
| March 1959 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.8 | 8.9 | 8.6 |
| March 1962 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 9.4 | 8.8 |
| March 1964 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.0 | 10.0 | 8.9 |
| March 1965 | 12.4 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.0 | 10.3 | 8.9 |
| March 1966 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.4 | 9.1 |
| March 1967 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.8 | 9.0 |
| **Male** | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 11.5 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 8.7 | | 8.2 |
| March 1957 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 11.8 | 9.0 | | 8.4 |
| March 1959 | 12.1 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.4 | 8.8 | 8.5 |
| March 1962 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 11.1 | 9.0 | 8.7 |
| March 1964 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 9.3 | 8.8 |
| March 1965 | 12.3 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 11.7 | 9.6 | 8.8 |
| March 1966 | 12.4 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 11.9 | 9.7 | 8.9 |
| March 1967 | 12.4 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.4 | 8.9 |
| **Female** | | | | | | |
| October 1952 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 11.9 | 9.2 | | 8.8 |
| March 1957 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.8 | | 8.8 |
| March 1959 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 11.7 | 10.0 | 8.8 |
| March 1962 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 10.7 | 9.0 |
| March 1964 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 10.2 |
| March 1965 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 11.5 | 9.8 |
| March 1966 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 10.4 |
| March 1967 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 10.1 |

## Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex, Occupation Group, and Color, Selected Dates, 1948–67

| Sex and occupation group | Total | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | March 1967 | March 1966 | March 1965 | March 1964 | March 1962 | March 1959 | March 1957 | October 1952 | October 1948 [1] |
| **BOTH SEXES** | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.0 | 11.7 | 10.9 | 10.6 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 14.7 | 14.6 | 14.2 | 14.0 | 13.9 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 12.9 | 12.8 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.3 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16+ | 16+ | 16+ |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.2 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 |
| Farmers and farm managers | 9.1 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.2 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 8.6 | 8.6 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.2 | 7.5 | 7.6 |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | (²) |
| Sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.3 | (²) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 10.0 | 9.7 | 9.2 | 9.0 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 12.0 | 11.9 | 11.7 | 11.5 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 9.7 |
| Operatives | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 9.9 | 9.5 | 9.1 | 9.1 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 9.5 | 9.5 | 9.5 | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 |
| Service workers | 11.0 | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 9.7 | 9.0 | 8.8 | 8.7 |
| Private household workers | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.4 | 8.3 | 8.1 | (²) |
| Other service workers | 11.5 | 11.4 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.3 | 9.6 | 9.2 | (²) |
| **MALE** | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.1 | 11.7 | 11.2 | 10.4 | 10.2 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 14.4 | 14.3 | 13.9 | 13.6 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 12.9 | 12.8 | 12.6 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.3 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.2 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16+ | 16+ | 16+ |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.2 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 8.4 | 8.4 | 8.2 |
| Farmers and farm managers | 9.1 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.3 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 8.2 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 8.2 | 8.3 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 7.2 | 7.8 |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | (²) |
| Sales workers | 12.8 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 | (²) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 11.2 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 9.7 | 9.1 | 9.0 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 12.0 | 11.8 | 11.7 | 11.5 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 9.7 |
| Operatives | 11.0 | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 9.6 | 9.0 | 9.1 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 9.5 | 9.4 | 9.5 | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 |
| Service workers | 11.4 | 11.3 | 11.1 | 10.6 | 10.3 | 10.1 | (³) | (³) | 9.0 |
| Private household workers | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (⁴) | (⁴) | (²) |
| Other service workers | 11.5 | 11.3 | 11.2 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 9.0 | 8.8 | (²) |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.0 | 11.7 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 15.3 | 15.3 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 14.7 | 14.0 | 14.4 | 14.0 | 13.7 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16.1 | 16.1 | 15.9 | 16+ | 16+ | 15.9 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.4 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 10.7 | 10.2 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 8.9 | 8.7 | (³) | 8.0 | 7.4 |
| Farmers and farm managers | (³) | 9.6 | 9.0 | 9.1 | 9.0 | 8.5 | (⁴) | 8.5 | 7.8 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 10.7 | 10.4 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 7.9 | 7.3 |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | (²) |
| Sales workers | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.2 | 12.0 | 12.1 | (²) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 10.6 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 10.1 | 10.0 | 9.8 | (³) | 9.4 | 9.1 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 11.5 | 12.1 | 11.8 | 11.2 | 9.2 | 11.2 | 11.3 | 11.5 | 10.4 |
| Operatives | 10.5 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 9.7 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 9.0 |
| Nonfarm laborers | (³) | (³) | 9.6 | (³) | 10.0 | (³) | (⁴) | 8.5 | (⁴) |
| Service workers | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 10.2 | 9.5 | 9.0 | 8.8 | 8.5 |
| Private household workers | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 8.4 | 8.3 | 8.1 | (²) |
| Other service workers | 11.5 | 11.5 | 11.4 | 11.2 | 11.1 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 9.7 | (²) |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex, Occupation Group, and Color, Selected Dates, 1948–67—Continued

| Sex and occupation group | White[5] | | | | | | Nonwhite[5] | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | March 1967 | March 1966 | March 1965 | March 1964 | March 1962 | March 1959 | March 1967 | March 1966 | March 1965 | March 1964 | March 1962 | March 1959 |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 10.1 | 9.6 | 8.6 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 14.6 | 14.5 | 14.1 | 14.0 | 13.9 | 13.4 | 16.0 | 16.1 | 16.1 | 15.4 | 14.7 | 15.1 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.2 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 16.1 | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16.3 | 16.5 | 16.5 | 16.2 | 16.2 | 16.2 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.4 | 11.8 | 10.7 | 11.0 | 8.4 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 9.0 | 9.0 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 6.2 | 5.9 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| Farmers and farm managers | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 6.7 | (³) | 5.9 | 5.9 | 5.6 | 5.2 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 8.9 | 9.1 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.8 | 8.6 | 6.0 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 6.2 | 6.0 | 5.7 |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.5 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| Sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.0 | (³) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 11.2 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.6 | 10.3 | 9.9 | 9.5 | 9.7 | 9.6 | 8.8 | 8.2 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 12.0 | 11.9 | 11.8 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 10.2 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 10.6 | 9.0 | 9.3 |
| Operatives | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.2 | 10.1 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 10.1 | 9.3 | 8.7 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 10.0 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 9.9 | 9.4 | 9.0 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 9.4 | 8.1 | 6.8 |
| Service workers | 11.5 | 11.4 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 10.7 | 10.1 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 9.8 | 9.3 | 9.2 | 8.8 |
| Private household workers | 9.8 | 9.3 | 8.9 | 9.1 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.9 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 7.8 |
| Other service workers | 11.7 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 10.0 | 10.2 | 9.8 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.0 | 10.3 | 10.0 | 10.1 | 9.7 | 9.0 | 8.2 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 14.4 | 14.3 | 13.9 | 13.6 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 14.6 | 15.7 | 16.0 | 15.4 | 12.8 | 14.8 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.3 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.2 | 16.6 | 16.6 | 16.5 | 16.2 | 16.2 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.8 | 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.1 | 12.1 | 11.5 | 11.0 | 10.7 | (³) |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 6.1 | 5.6 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 5.6 | 5.3 |
| Farmers and farm managers | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 6.6 | (³) | 5.8 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.0 |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 8.6 | 8.6 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 8.7 | 8.3 | 5.8 | 5.5 | (³) | 6.2 | 5.7 | 5.5 |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| Sales workers | 12.8 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 12.6 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 11.4 | 11.3 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 9.5 | 9.4 | 9.6 | 9.4 | 8.6 | 7.9 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 12.0 | 11.9 | 11.8 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 10.3 | 10.5 | 8.9 | 9.2 |
| Operatives | 11.1 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.4 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 8.9 | 8.4 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 9.9 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 9.8 | 9.4 | 9.0 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 8.1 | 6.7 |
| Service workers | 11.8 | 11.6 | 11.5 | 11.2 | 10.7 | 10.2 | 10.3 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 9.6 |
| Private household workers | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Other service workers | 11.9 | 11.6 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 10.7 | 10.3 | 10.3 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 8.9 | 9.6 | 9.6 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| All occupation groups | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 9.4 |
| Professional and managerial workers | 15.1 | 15.1 | 14.8 | 15.0 | 14.6 | 14.0 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 15.5 | 16.2 | 15.6 |
| Professional and technical workers | 16.1 | 16.2 | 16.1 | 16.2 | 16.0 | 15.8 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.4 | 16.1 | 16.3 | 16.2 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 12.3 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 11.2 | 10.8 | 9.5 | 9.4 | 9.3 | 8.9 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Farmers and farm managers | (³) | 9.9 | 9.5 | 9.8 | 9.5 | 8.5 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Farm laborers and foremen | 11.4 | 10.9 | 9.4 | 9.3 | 9.2 | 9.0 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Clerical and sales workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| Clerical workers | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 12.7 | 12.5 | 12.6 |
| Sales workers | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.2 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers | 10.5 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 9.8 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 10.6 | 10.7 | 10.0 | 9.5 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 11.4 | 12.0 | 11.7 | 11.2 | 11.1 | 11.1 | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Operatives | 10.4 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 9.9 | 9.8 | 9.8 | 11.1 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.5 | 10.0 | 9.4 |
| Nonfarm laborers | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) | (³) |
| Service workers | 11.3 | 11.2 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 10.7 | 10.0 | 9.6 | 9.5 | 9.7 | 9.5 | 9.2 | 8.6 |
| Private household workers | 9.9 | 9.4 | 8.9 | 9.1 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.9 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 7.8 |
| Other service workers | 11.6 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 10.6 | 11.0 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.0 |

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[1] Data for 1948 do not include persons 65 years and over.
[2] Not available.
[3] Median not shown where base is less than 100,000.
[4] Median not shown where base is less than 150,000.
[5] Data by color not available prior to 1959.

## Table B–13. Persons With Two Jobs or More, by Industry and Class of Worker of Primary and Secondary Job, Selected Dates, 1956–66 [1]

| Item | May of— | | | | | December of— | | July of— | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 | 1956 |
| **PRIMARY JOB** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Number (thousands)* | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total holding 2 or more jobs | 3,636 | 3,756 | 3,726 | 3,921 | 3,342 | 3,012 | 2,966 | 3,099 | 3,570 | 3,653 |
| Agriculture | 335 | 416 | 405 | 386 | 364 | 332 | 321 | 629 | 858 | 866 |
| Wage and salary workers | 88 | 133 | 139 | 146 | 102 | 97 | 104 | 264 | 285 | 295 |
| Self-employed workers | 200 | 218 | 230 | 195 | 210 | 208 | 199 | 264 | 385 | 402 |
| Unpaid family workers | 47 | 65 | 36 | 45 | 52 | 27 | 18 | 101 | 188 | 169 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 3,301 | 3,340 | 3,321 | 3,535 | 2,978 | 2,680 | 2,645 | 2,470 | 2,712 | 2,787 |
| Wage and salary workers | 3,110 | 3,131 | 3,135 | 3,361 | 2,764 | 2,489 | 2,451 | 2,257 | 2,447 | 2,569 |
| Self-employed workers | 177 | 200 | 175 | 169 | 194 | 184 | 182 | 198 | 237 | 200 |
| Unpaid family workers | 14 | 9 | 11 | 5 | 20 | 7 | 12 | 15 | 28 | 18 |
| *Percent of Total Employed* | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total holding 2 or more jobs | 4.9 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 5.5 |
| Agriculture | 7.8 | 8.1 | 8.1 | 7.5 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 9.3 | 11.0 | 11.2 |
| Wage and salary workers | 6.6 | 8.4 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 6.2 | 6.7 | 7.7 | 13.2 | 12.1 | 13.4 |
| Self-employed workers | 8.9 | 8.6 | 9.3 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 7.6 | 7.2 | 8.1 | 10.7 | 10.9 |
| Unpaid family workers | 6.6 | 6.5 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 5.2 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 6.9 | 10.0 | 9.4 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 4.7 |
| Wage and salary workers | 5.0 | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.9 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 4.9 |
| Self-employed workers | 2.8 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 3.3 |
| Unpaid family workers | 2.5 | 1.5 | 1.9 | .9 | 2.9 | 1.1 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 3.9 | 2.7 |
| **SECONDARY JOB** | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Number (thousands)* | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total holding 2 or more jobs | 3,636 | 3,756 | 3,726 | 3,921 | 3,342 | 3,012 | 2,966 | 3,099 | 3,570 | 3,653 |
| Agriculture | 721 | 786 | 801 | 825 | 645 | 587 | 649 | 850 | 1,035 | 1,111 |
| Wage and salary workers | 139 | 167 | 185 | 188 | 176 | 135 | 130 | 362 | 506 | 485 |
| Self-employed workers | 582 | 619 | 616 | 637 | 469 | 452 | 519 | 488 | 529 | 626 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 2,915 | 2,970 | 2,925 | 3,096 | 2,697 | 2,425 | 2,317 | 2,249 | 2,535 | 2,542 |
| Wage and salary workers | 2,335 | 2,389 | 2,367 | 2,481 | 2,176 | 2,025 | 1,907 | 1,905 | 2,187 | 2,202 |
| Self-employed workers | 580 | 581 | 558 | 615 | 521 | 400 | 410 | 344 | 348 | 340 |

[1] Survey on dual jobholders was not conducted in 1967.

NOTE: Persons whose only extra job is as an unpaid family worker are not counted as dual jobholders.

Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1960 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years.

# Table B–14. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Extent of Employment and by Sex, 1950–66

[Persons 14 years and over for 1950-66, 16 years and over for 1966]

| Sex and year | Number who worked during year (thousands)[1] | | | | | | | | | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Full time[2] | | | | Part time | | | | Total | Full time[2] | | | | Part time | | | |
| | | Total | 50 to 52 weeks | 27 to 49 weeks | 1 to 26 weeks | Total | 50 to 52 weeks | 27 to 49 weeks | 1 to 26 weeks | | Total | 50 to 52 weeks | 27 to 49 weeks | 1 to 26 weeks | Total | 50 to 52 weeks | 27 to 49 weeks | 1 to 26 weeks |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1950 | 68,876 | 58,181 | 38,375 | 11,795 | 8,013 | 10,695 | 3,322 | 2,214 | 5,162 | 100.0 | 84.5 | 55.7 | 17.1 | 11.6 | 15.5 | 4.8 | 3.2 | 7.5 |
| 1951 | 69,962 | 59,544 | 40,142 | 12,018 | 7,384 | 10,418 | 3,144 | 2,240 | 5,034 | 100.0 | 85.1 | 57.4 | 17.2 | 10.6 | 14.9 | 4.5 | 3.2 | 7.2 |
| 1952[3] | 70,512 | 60,294 | 40,486 | 12,374 | 7,434 | 10,218 | 3,002 | 2,294 | 4,832 | 100.0 | 85.5 | 57.4 | 17.5 | 10.5 | 14.5 | 4.4 | 3.3 | 6.9 |
| 1953[3] | 70,682 | 60,532 | 41,601 | 12,003 | 6,928 | 10,150 | 3,270 | 2,333 | 4,547 | 100.0 | 85.6 | 58.9 | 17.0 | 9.8 | 14.4 | 4.6 | 3.3 | 6.4 |
| 1954 | 71,797 | 60,059 | 40,080 | 12,025 | 7,954 | 11,738 | 3,701 | 2,663 | 5,374 | 100.0 | 83.7 | 55.8 | 16.7 | 11.1 | 16.3 | 5.2 | 3.7 | 7.5 |
| 1955 | 75,353 | 62,581 | 42,624 | 11,952 | 8,005 | 12,772 | 4,773 | 2,573 | 5,426 | 100.0 | 83.1 | 56.6 | 15.9 | 10.6 | 16.9 | 6.3 | 3.4 | 7.2 |
| 1956 | 75,852 | 62,437 | 42,778 | 11,791 | 7,868 | 13,415 | 4,760 | 2,693 | 5,962 | 100.0 | 82.3 | 56.4 | 15.5 | 10.4 | 17.7 | 6.3 | 3.6 | 7.9 |
| 1957 | 77,664 | 62,874 | 42,818 | 11,981 | 8,075 | 14,790 | 4,989 | 2,872 | 6,929 | 100.0 | 81.0 | 55.1 | 15.4 | 10.4 | 19.0 | 6.4 | 3.7 | 8.9 |
| 1958 | 77,117 | 61,676 | 41,329 | 11,546 | 8,799 | 15,441 | 5,402 | 3,025 | 7,014 | 100.0 | 80.0 | 53.6 | 15.0 | 11.4 | 20.0 | 7.0 | 3.9 | 9.1 |
| 1959[4] | 78,162 | 63,004 | 42,030 | 12,515 | 8,459 | 15,158 | 5,173 | 3,104 | 6,881 | 100.0 | 80.6 | 53.8 | 16.0 | 10.8 | 19.4 | 6.6 | 4.0 | 8.8 |
| 1960 | 80,618 | 64,153 | 43,265 | 12,132 | 8,756 | 16,465 | 5,307 | 3,290 | 7,868 | 100.0 | 79.6 | 53.7 | 15.0 | 10.9 | 20.4 | 6.6 | 4.1 | 9.8 |
| 1961 | 80,287 | 64,218 | 43,006 | 12,042 | 9,170 | 16,069 | 5,191 | 3,068 | 7,810 | 100.0 | 80.0 | 53.6 | 15.0 | 11.4 | 20.0 | 6.5 | 3.8 | 9.7 |
| 1962 | 82,057 | 65,327 | 44,079 | 12,102 | 9,146 | 16,730 | 5,130 | 3,368 | 8,232 | 100.0 | 79.6 | 53.7 | 14.7 | 11.1 | 20.4 | 6.3 | 4.1 | 10.0 |
| 1963 | 83,227 | 66,157 | 45,449 | 11,565 | 9,153 | 17,060 | 5,229 | 3,353 | 8,478 | 100.0 | 79.5 | 54.6 | 13.9 | 11.0 | 20.5 | 6.3 | 4.0 | 10.2 |
| 1964 | 85,124 | 67,825 | 46,846 | 11,691 | 9,288 | 17,299 | 5,268 | 3,374 | 8,657 | 100.0 | 79.6 | 55.0 | 13.7 | 10.9 | 20.3 | 6.2 | 4.0 | 10.2 |
| 1965 | 86,186 | 68,697 | 48,392 | 11,171 | 9,134 | 17,489 | 5,418 | 3,268 | 8,803 | 100.0 | 79.7 | 5[illegible]1 | 13.0 | 10.6 | 20.3 | 6.3 | 3.8 | 10.2 |
| 1966 | 88,553 | 70,449 | 50,081 | 10,654 | 9,714 | 18,104 | 5,854 | 3,587 | 8,663 | 100.0 | 79.6 | 56.6 | 12.0 | 11.0 | 20.4 | 6.6 | 4.0 | 9.8 |
| 1966[5] | 86,266 | 70,140 | 50,049 | 10,647 | 9,444 | 16,126 | 5,407 | 3,380 | 7,339 | 100.0 | 81.3 | 58.0 | 12.3 | 10.9 | 18.7 | 6.3 | 3.9 | 8.5 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1950 | 45,526 | 41,042 | 29,783 | 7,624 | 3,636 | 4,484 | 1,406 | 1,004 | 2,074 | 100.0 | 90.2 | 65.4 | 16.7 | 8.0 | 9.8 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 4.6 |
| 1951 | 45,364 | 41,338 | 30,894 | 7,518 | 2,926 | 4,026 | 1,310 | 918 | 1,798 | 100.0 | 91.1 | 68.1 | 16.6 | 6.4 | 8.9 | 2.9 | 2.0 | 4.0 |
| 1952[3] | 45,704 | 41,816 | 30,878 | 7,922 | 3,016 | 3,888 | 1,178 | 896 | 1,814 | 100.0 | 91.5 | 67.6 | 17.3 | 6.6 | 8.5 | 2.6 | 2.0 | 4.0 |
| 1953[3] | 46,146 | 42,059 | 31,902 | 7,317 | 2,840 | 4,087 | 1,341 | 1,055 | 1,691 | 100.0 | 91.1 | 69.1 | 15.9 | 6.2 | 8.9 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 3.7 |
| 1954 | 46,318 | 41,404 | 30,389 | 7,567 | 3,448 | 4,914 | 1,552 | 1,227 | 2,135 | 100.0 | 89.4 | 65.6 | 16.3 | 7.4 | 10.6 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 4.6 |
| 1955 | 47,624 | 42,814 | 32,127 | 7,356 | 3,331 | 4,810 | 1,930 | 1,066 | 1,814 | 100.0 | 89.9 | 67.5 | 15.5 | 7.0 | 10.1 | 4.1 | 2.2 | 3.8 |
| 1956 | 47,904 | 42,704 | 32,342 | 7,218 | 3,144 | 5,200 | 1,920 | 1,074 | 2,206 | 100.0 | 89.1 | 67.5 | 15.1 | 6.6 | 10.9 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 4.6 |
| 1957 | 48,709 | 42,886 | 32,089 | 7,350 | 3,447 | 5,823 | 2,135 | 1,115 | 2,573 | 100.0 | 88.0 | 65.9 | 15.1 | 7.1 | 12.0 | 4.4 | 2.3 | 5.3 |
| 1958 | 48,380 | 42,052 | 30,727 | 7,233 | 4,091 | 6,328 | 2,348 | 1,259 | 2,721 | 100.0 | 86.9 | 63.5 | 15.0 | 8.5 | 13.1 | 4.9 | 2.6 | 5.6 |
| 1959[4] | 48,973 | 42,997 | 31,502 | 7,830 | 3,665 | 5,976 | 2,211 | 1,224 | 2,541 | 100.0 | 87.8 | 64.3 | 16.0 | 7.5 | 12.2 | 4.5 | 2.5 | 5.2 |
| 1960 | 50,033 | 43,476 | 31,966 | 7,653 | 3,857 | 6,557 | 2,247 | 1,267 | 3,043 | 100.0 | 86.9 | 63.9 | 15.3 | 7.7 | 13.1 | 4.5 | 2.5 | 6.1 |
| 1961 | 49,854 | 43,467 | 31,769 | 7,434 | 4,264 | 6,387 | 2,240 | 1,163 | 2,984 | 100.0 | 87.2 | 63.7 | 14.9 | 8.6 | 12.8 | 4.5 | 2.3 | 6.0 |
| 1962 | 50,639 | 43,987 | 32,513 | 7,185 | 4,289 | 6,652 | 2,114 | 1,305 | 3,233 | 100.0 | 86.9 | 64.2 | 14.2 | 8.5 | 13.1 | 4.2 | 2.6 | 6.4 |
| 1963 | 51,039 | 44,294 | 33,587 | 6,686 | 4,021 | 6,745 | 2,098 | 1,274 | 3,373 | 100.0 | 86.8 | 65.8 | 13.1 | 7.9 | 13.2 | 4.1 | 2.5 | 6.6 |
| 1964 | 51,978 | 45,313 | 34,428 | 6,723 | 4,162 | 6,665 | 2,164 | 1,220 | 3,281 | 100.0 | 87.1 | 66.2 | 12.9 | 8.0 | 12.8 | 4.2 | 2.3 | 6.3 |
| 1965 | 52,419 | 45,552 | 35,300 | 6,306 | 3,946 | 6,867 | 2,326 | 1,197 | 3,344 | 100.0 | 86.9 | 67.3 | 12.0 | 7.5 | 13.1 | 4.4 | 2.3 | 6.4 |
| 1966 | 53,108 | 46,127 | 36,222 | 5,808 | 4,098 | 6,981 | 2,418 | 1,261 | 3,302 | 100.0 | 86.9 | 68.2 | 10.9 | 7.7 | 13.1 | 4.6 | 2.4 | 6.2 |
| 1966[5] | 51,708 | 45,909 | 36,191 | 5,802 | 3,916 | 5,799 | 2,091 | 1,162 | 2,546 | 100.0 | 88.8 | 70.0 | 11.2 | 7.6 | 11.2 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 4.9 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1950 | 23,350 | 17,139 | 8,592 | 4,171 | 4,377 | 6,211 | 1,916 | 1,210 | 3,088 | 100.0 | 73.4 | 36.8 | 17.9 | 18.7 | 26.6 | 8.2 | 5.1 | 13.2 |
| 1951 | 24,598 | 18,206 | 9,248 | 4,500 | 4,458 | 6,392 | 1,834 | 1,322 | 3,236 | 100.0 | 74.0 | 37.6 | 18.3 | 18.1 | 26.0 | 7.5 | 5.4 | 13.2 |
| 1952[3] | 24,808 | 18,478 | 9,608 | 4,452 | 4,418 | 6,330 | 1,914 | 1,398 | 3,018 | 100.0 | 74.5 | 38.7 | 17.9 | 17.8 | 25.5 | 7.7 | 5.6 | 12.2 |
| 1953[3] | 24,536 | 18,473 | 9,699 | 4,686 | 4,088 | 6,063 | 1,929 | 1,278 | 2,856 | 100.0 | 75.3 | 39.5 | 19.1 | 16.7 | 24.7 | 7.9 | 5.2 | 11.6 |
| 1954 | 25,479 | 18,655 | 9,691 | 4,458 | 4,506 | 6,824 | 2,149 | 1,436 | 3,239 | 100.0 | 73.2 | 38.0 | 17.5 | 17.7 | 26.8 | 8.4 | 5.6 | 12.7 |
| 1955 | 27,729 | 19,767 | 10,497 | 4,596 | 4,674 | 7,962 | 2,843 | 1,507 | 3,612 | 100.0 | 71.3 | 37.9 | 16.5 | 16.9 | 28.7 | 10.3 | 5.4 | 13.0 |
| 1956 | 27,948 | 19,733 | 10,436 | 4,573 | 4,724 | 8,215 | 2,840 | 1,619 | 3,756 | 100.0 | 70.6 | 37.3 | 16.4 | 16.9 | 29.4 | 10.2 | 5.8 | 13.4 |
| 1957 | 28,955 | 19,988 | 10,729 | 4,631 | 4,628 | 8,967 | 2,854 | 1,757 | 4,356 | 100.0 | 69.0 | 37.0 | 16.0 | 16.0 | 31.0 | 9.9 | 6.1 | 15.0 |
| 1958 | 28,736 | 19,623 | 10,602 | 4,313 | 4,708 | 9,113 | 3,054 | 1,766 | 4,293 | 100.0 | 68.3 | 36.9 | 15.0 | 16.4 | 31.7 | 10.6 | 6.1 | 14.9 |
| 1959[4] | 29,189 | 20,007 | 10,528 | 4,685 | 4,794 | 9,182 | 2,962 | 1,880 | 4,340 | 100.0 | 68.5 | 36.1 | 16.1 | 16.4 | 31.5 | 10.1 | 6.4 | 14.9 |
| 1960 | 30,585 | 20,677 | 11,299 | 4,479 | 4,899 | 9,908 | 3,060 | 2,023 | 4,825 | 100.0 | 67.6 | 36.9 | 14.6 | 16.0 | 32.4 | 10.0 | 6.6 | 15.8 |
| 1961 | 30,433 | 20,751 | 11,237 | 4,608 | 4,906 | 9,682 | 2,951 | 1,905 | 4,826 | 100.0 | 68.2 | 36.9 | 15.1 | 16.1 | 31.8 | 9.7 | 6.3 | 15.9 |
| 1962 | 31,418 | 21,340 | 11,566 | 4,917 | 4,857 | 10,078 | 3,016 | 2,063 | 4,999 | 100.0 | 67.9 | 36.8 | 15.6 | 15.5 | 32.1 | 9.6 | 6.6 | 15.9 |
| 1963 | 32,188 | 21,873 | 11,862 | 4,879 | 5,132 | 10,315 | 3,131 | 2,079 | 5,105 | 100.0 | 68.0 | 36.9 | 15.2 | 15.9 | 32.0 | 9.7 | 6.5 | 15.9 |
| 1964 | 33,146 | 22,512 | 12,418 | 4,968 | 5,126 | 10,634 | 3,104 | 2,154 | 5,376 | 100.0 | 68.0 | 37.5 | 15.0 | 15.5 | 32.1 | 9.4 | 6.5 | 16.2 |
| 1965 | 33,767 | 23,145 | 13,092 | 4,865 | 5,188 | 10,622 | 3,092 | 2,071 | 5,459 | 100.0 | 68.5 | 38.8 | 14.4 | 15.4 | 31.5 | 9.2 | 6.1 | 16.2 |
| 1966 | 35,444 | 24,321 | 13,859 | 4,846 | 5,616 | 11,123 | 3,436 | 2,326 | 5,361 | 100.0 | 68.6 | 39.1 | 13.7 | 15.8 | 31.4 | 9.7 | 6.6 | 15.1 |
| 1966[5] | 34,558 | 24,231 | 13,858 | 4,845 | 5,528 | 10,327 | 3,316 | 2,218 | 4,793 | 100.0 | 70.1 | 40.1 | 14.0 | 16.0 | 29.9 | 9.6 | 6.4 | 13.9 |

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[1] Time worked includes paid vacation and paid sick leave.

[2] Usually worked 35 hours or more a week.

[3] Not strictly comparable with earlier years because of the introduction of data from the 1950 Census into the estimation procedure. The number with work experience was raised about 120,000 between 1951 and 1952 and an additional 230,000 between 1952 and 1953.

[4] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years. For 1959 this inclusion resulted in an increase of about 300,000 in the total who worked during the year, with about 150,000 in the group working 50 to 52 weeks at full-time jobs.

[5] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

## Table B-15. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1957–66[1]

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957-66, 16 years and over for 1966]

| Industry group and class of worker | 1966[2] | 1966[3] | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959[4] | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All industry groups | 86,266 | 88,553 | 86,186 | 85,124 | 83,227 | 82,057 | 80,287 | 80,618 | 78,162 | 77,117 | [illegible] |
| Agriculture | 5,021 | 5,604 | 6,348 | 7,051 | 6,796 | 7,179 | 7,502 | 7,902 | 7,924 | 8,291 | 8,355 |
| Wage and salary workers | 2,079 | 2,435 | 2,622 | 2,695 | 2,725 | 2,794 | 2,780 | 2,667 | 2,752 | 2,771 | 2,469 |
| Self-employed workers | 2,098 | 2,132 | 2,442 | 2,496 | 2,396 | 2,601 | 2,836 | 3,012 | 2,992 | 3,141 | 3,358 |
| Unpaid family workers | 844 | 1,037 | 1,284 | 1,860 | 1,675 | 1,784 | 1,886 | 2,223 | 2,180 | 2,379 | 2,528 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 81,245 | 82,949 | 79,838 | 78,073 | 76,431 | 74,878 | 72,785 | 72,716 | 70,238 | 68,826 | 69,306 |
| Wage and salary workers | 75,038 | 76,562 | 72,492 | 70,331 | 68,444 | 67,006 | 64,534 | 64,540 | 62,439 | 61,077 | 61,767 |
| Forestry and fisheries | 100 | 103 | 114 | 116 | 115 | 121 | 107 | 85 | 105 | 118 | 795 |
| Mining | 602 | 602 | 578 | 587 | 569 | 639 | 673 | 626 | 684 | 650 |  |
| Construction | 4,538 | 4,578 | 4,556 | 4,501 | 4,216 | 4,235 | 4,096 | 4,042 | 4,099 | 4,277 | 4,022 |
| Manufacturing | 22,248 | 22,477 | 21,297 | 20,364 | 20,076 | 19,533 | 18,255 | 18,815 | 18,941 | 17,864 | 19,409 |
| Durable goods | 12,788 | 12,807 | 11,928 | 11,475 | 11,285 | 10,934 | 10,043 | 10,532 | 10,522 | 10,034 | 11,112 |
| Lumber and wood products | 651 | 655 | 614 | 636 | 613 | 574 | 550 | 526 | 608 | 658 | (5) |
| Furniture and fixtures | 492 | 494 | 528 | 460 | 470 | 458 | 389 | 383 | 427 | 394 | (5) |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 710 | 710 | 720 | 622 | 562 | 576 | 531 | 596 | 508 | 505 | (5) |
| Primary metal industries | 1,409 | 1,411 | 1,385 | 1,334 | 1,308 | 1,168 | 1,098 | 1,260 | 1,294 | 1,123 | (5) |
| Fabricated metal products | 1,648 | 1,650 | 1,455 | 1,533 | 1,635 | 1,527 | 1,409 | 1,189 | 1,185 | 1,195 | (5) |
| Machinery | 2,223 | 2,225 | 2,014 | 1,973 | 1,775 | 1,840 | 1,719 | 1,765 | 1,661 | 1,575 | (5) |
| Electrical equipment | 2,142 | 2,142 | 1,917 | 1,670 | 1,799 | 1,814 | 1,588 | 1,524 | 1,509 | 1,278 | (5) |
| Transportation equipment | 2,412 | 2,415 | 2,280 | 2,139 | 2,077 | 1,960 | 1,759 | 2,303 | 2,424 | 2,364 | (5) |
| Automobiles | 1,133 | 1,136 | 1,085 | 1,005 | 949 | 928 | 881 | 1,018 | 1,050 | 1,033 | (5) |
| Other transportation equipment | 1,279 | 1,279 | 1,195 | 1,134 | 1,128 | 1,032 | 878 | 1,284 | 1,374 | 1,331 | (5) |
| Other durable goods | 1,101 | 1,105 | 1,015 | 1,098 | 1,046 | 1,017 | 1,000 | 976 | 908 | 942 | (5) |
| Nondurable goods | 9,460 | 9,670 | 9,369 | 8,889 | 8,791 | 8,599 | 8,212 | 8,283 | 8,419 | 7,830 | 8,297 |
| Food and kindred products | 2,122 | 2,140 | 2,134 | 2,093 | 2,117 | 2,133 | 2,028 | 1,909 | 1,892 | 1,697 | (5) |
| Textile mill products | 1,158 | 1,162 | 1,169 | 1,109 | 1,082 | 959 | 911 | 1,064 | 1,135 | 1,088 | (5) |
| Apparel and related products | 1,639 | 1,640 | 1,625 | 1,558 | 1,466 | 1,487 | 1,327 | 1,378 | 1,414 | 1,288 | (5) |
| Printing and publishing | 1,318 | 1,503 | 1,458 | 1,258 | 1,387 | 1,332 | 1,289 | 1,307 | 1,256 | 1,238 | (5) |
| Chemicals and allied products | 1,213 | 1,214 | 1,014 | 1,063 | 1,004 | 949 | 984 | 882 | 964 | 964 | (5) |
| Other nondurable goods | 2,010 | 2,011 | 1,969 | 1,808 | 1,735 | 1,739 | 1,673 | 1,743 | 1,758 | 1,555 | (5) |
| Transportation and public utilities | 4,993 | 5,011 | 4,856 | 4,843 | 4,916 | 4,711 | 4,518 | 4,768 | 4,865 | 4,657 | 4,887 |
| Railroads and railway express | 849 | 852 | 812 | 896 | 910 | 932 | 925 | 975 | 1,042 | 1,118 | (5) |
| Other transportation | 1,914 | 1,925 | 1,894 | 1,916 | 1,920 | 1,810 | 1,590 | 1,764 | 1,788 | 1,692 | (5) |
| Communications | 1,101 | 1,102 | 1,016 | 913 | 922 | 860 | 912 | 944 | 919 | 844 | (5) |
| Other public utilities | 1,129 | 1,132 | 1,134 | 1,118 | 1,164 | 1,109 | 1,091 | 1,084 | 1,116 | 1,003 | (5) |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 15,027 | 15,339 | 14,293 | 14,012 | 13,358 | 13,462 | 13,033 | 13,040 | 12,525 | 12,638 | 12,407 |
| Wholesale trade | 2,551 | 2,579 | 2,586 | 2,388 | 2,260 | 2,337 | 2,458 | 2,482 | 2,394 | 2,381 | (5) |
| Retail trade | 12,476 | 12,760 | 11,707 | 11,624 | 11,098 | 11,125 | 10,575 | 10,558 | 10,131 | 10,257 | (5) |
| Finance and service | 23,142 | 24,058 | 22,779 | 21,872 | 21,151 | 20,387 | 20,126 | 19,501 | 17,807 | 17,530 | 16,929 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate | 3,606 | 3,617 | 3,476 | 3,331 | 3,264 | 3,052 | 3,081 | 3,171 | 2,797 | 2,568 | (5) |
| Business and repair services | 1,783 | 1,811 | 1,746 | 1,667 | 1,647 | 1,646 | 1,471 | 1,468 | 1,390 | 1,359 | (5) |
| Private households | 2,949 | 3,623 | 3,847 | 3,849 | 3,772 | 3,916 | 3,964 | 3,692 | 3,522 | 3,507 | 3,370 |
| Personal services, excluding private households | 2,093 | 2,114 | 2,146 | 2,173 | 2,018 | 1,895 | 2,145 | 2,058 | 1,794 | 1,913 | (5) |
| Entertainment and recreation services | 875 | 950 | 807 | 768 | 848 | 795 | 852 | 759 | 701 | 792 | (5) |
| Medical and other health services | 3,958 | 3,984 | 3,608 | 3,393 | 3,287 | 3,092 | 2,915 | 2,878 | 2,686 | 2,445 | (5) |
| Welfare and religious services | 814 | 827 | 754 | 825 | 790 | 783 | 736 | 729 | 609 | 717 | (5) |
| Educational services | 5,952 | 6,008 | 5,318 | 4,808 | 4,556 | 4,325 | 4,101 | 3,781 | 3,443 | 3,432 | (5) |
| Other professional services | 1,112 | 1,124 | 1,077 | 1,058 | 969 | 883 | 861 | 964 | 865 | 797 | (5) |
| Public administration | 4,388 | 4,394 | 4,024 | 4,036 | 4,043 | 3,918 | 3,726 | 3,671 | 3,413 | 2,343 | 3,318 |
| Self-employed workers | 5,590 | 5,734 | 6,640 | 6,614 | 6,790 | 6,782 | 7,170 | 6,971 | 6,748 | 6,672 | 6,587 |
| Unpaid family workers | 617 | 653 | 706 | 1,128 | 1,197 | 1,090 | 1,081 | 1,196 | 1,051 | 1,077 | 954 |

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[1] Data for 1955-56 appeared in previous issues of the *Manpower Report*.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967. See also footnote 3.

[3] The 1966 estimates are not strictly comparable with those of prior years because of earlier misclassification of some wage and salary workers as self-employed. The change in classification resulted in a shift of about 750,000 from nonfarm self-employment to wage and salary employment, affecting primarily the data for trade and service industries.

[4] See footnote 4, table B-14.

[5] Not available.

# Table B–16. Percent of Persons With Work Experience During the Year Who Worked Year Round at Full-Time Jobs, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1957–66[1]

[Percent of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966]

| Industry group and class of worker | 1966[2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All industry groups | 58.0 | 56.6 | 56.1 | 55.0 | 54.6 | 53.7 | 53.6 | 53.7 | 53.8 | 53.6 | 55.1 |
| Agriculture | 47.4 | 42.8 | 40.4 | 37.7 | 37.6 | 37.9 | 40.9 | 38.9 | 39.6 | 39.4 | 41.5 |
| Wage and salary workers | 30.8 | 26.6 | 23.0 | 22.0 | 22.5 | 21.2 | 23.8 | 22.9 | 21.9 | 20.9 | 23.0 |
| Self-employed workers | 75.3 | 74.1 | 72.4 | 73.6 | 72.7 | 72.5 | 74.8 | 71.1 | 74.8 | 74.9 | 77.1 |
| Unpaid family workers | 18.7 | 16.7 | 15.1 | 12.3 | 11.8 | 13.5 | 15.3 | 14.4 | 13.7 | 14.3 | 12.3 |
| Nonagricultural industries | 58.7 | 57.5 | 57.4 | 56.6 | 56.1 | 55.2 | 54.9 | 55.3 | 55.4 | 55.3 | 56.8 |
| Wage and salary workers | 58.5 | 57.3 | 57.2 | 56.3 | 55.8 | 54.9 | 54.6 | 54.8 | 54.7 | 54.6 | 56.1 |
| Forestry and fisheries | 53.0 | 52.4 | 33.3 | 44.0 | 32.2 | 45.5 | 29.0 | (3) | 41.9 | 50.0 | 64.7 |
| Mining | 78.6 | 78.6 | 68.3 | 67.5 | 66.2 | 67.6 | 64.8 | 65.2 | 58.7 | 58.2 | |
| Construction | 53.9 | 53.5 | 51.5 | 48.8 | 45.5 | 43.2 | 41.5 | 41.8 | 43.6 | 40.6 | 45.7 |
| Manufacturing | 69.6 | 68.9 | 69.2 | 67.7 | 67.1 | 64.8 | 63.7 | 64.3 | 62.5 | 62.3 | 63.3 |
| Durable goods | 72.4 | 72.3 | 72.4 | 70.7 | 70.7 | 67.6 | 65.9 | 66.0 | 62.9 | 62.4 | 66.4 |
| Lumber and wood products | 59.6 | 59.2 | 52.9 | 52.8 | 50.1 | 50.3 | 46.9 | 48.3 | 55.3 | 49.5 | (4) |
| Furniture and fixtures | 70.5 | 70.2 | 70.8 | 67.0 | 65.7 | 64.8 | 63.5 | 58.7 | 65.0 | 52.8 | (4) |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 73.8 | 73.8 | 72.8 | 72.9 | 72.4 | 62.0 | 64.0 | 63.4 | 66.0 | 63.4 | (4) |
| Primary metal industries | 76.5 | 76.4 | 77.3 | 80.1 | 73.9 | 69.1 | 67.8 | 63.5 | 47.8 | 65.4 | (4) |
| Fabricated metal products | 72.9 | 72.8 | 72.5 | 70.4 | 71.1 | 71.0 | 68.6 | 71.6 | 68.4 | 69.3 | (4) |
| Machinery | 77.8 | 77.8 | 77.9 | 76.7 | 76.3 | 73.3 | 73.7 | 73.0 | 72.4 | 66.5 | (4) |
| Electrical equipment | 67.7 | 67.7 | 70.7 | 73.5 | 70.5 | 70.1 | 71.3 | 69.6 | 69.1 | 68.2 | (4) |
| Transportation equipment | 74.1 | 74.0 | 72.3 | 67.7 | 75.2 | 70.1 | 61.0 | 65.4 | 61.5 | 58.6 | (4) |
| Automobiles | 68.8 | 68.6 | 69.8 | 58.1 | 70.8 | 67.8 | 52.3 | 54.6 | 44.9 | 39.0 | (4) |
| Other transportation equipment | 78.9 | 78.9 | 74.6 | 76.3 | 78.8 | 72.2 | 69.7 | 74.0 | 74.2 | 73.9 | (4) |
| Other durable goods | 68.1 | 67.9 | 70.3 | 60.7 | 61.9 | 55.7 | 58.8 | 59.6 | 56.2 | 57.9 | (4) |
| Nondurable goods | 65.8 | 64.4 | 65.0 | 63.8 | 62.4 | 61.3 | 61.1 | 62.1 | 62.0 | 62.0 | 59.2 |
| Food and kindred products | 64.8 | 64.3 | 64.9 | 64.0 | 63.2 | 61.3 | 58.4 | 61.4 | 61.0 | 60.5 | (4) |
| Textile mill products | 69.9 | 69.6 | 69.4 | 65.7 | 64.2 | 59.0 | 59.2 | 62.5 | 63.2 | 58.4 | (4) |
| Apparel and related products | 49.2 | 49.2 | 50.2 | 47.1 | 45.4 | 44.0 | 44.8 | 38.6 | 44.5 | 43.9 | (4) |
| Printing and publishing | 61.1 | 53.6 | 55.0 | 54.3 | 52.2 | 51.4 | 54.5 | 60.1 | 57.7 | 59.5 | (4) |
| Chemicals and allied products | 79.9 | 79.8 | 78.5 | 79.3 | 76.6 | 77.1 | 79.4 | 82.2 | 74.6 | 79.1 | (4) |
| Other nondurable goods | 72.6 | 72.6 | 75.4 | 74.3 | 74.6 | 76.3 | 72.7 | 72.6 | 72.4 | 72.6 | (4) |
| Transportation and public utilities | 75.7 | 75.5 | 75.8 | 75.4 | 72.8 | 72.2 | 73.2 | 71.7 | 71.4 | 72.0 | 72.2 |
| Railroads and railway express | 83.6 | 83.4 | 82.5 | 78.6 | 77.3 | 73.3 | 77.0 | 73.5 | 74.1 | 75.1 | (4) |
| Other transportation | 67.6 | 67.2 | 65.9 | 66.8 | 64.1 | 63.4 | 62.8 | 62.8 | 64.1 | 60.0 | (4) |
| Communications | 74.0 | 74.0 | 78.0 | 78.0 | 73.8 | 77.7 | 76.1 | 74.5 | 71.1 | 77.1 | (4) |
| Other public utilities | 85.1 | 84.9 | 85.4 | 85.3 | 82.7 | 81.4 | 82.5 | 81.9 | 80.6 | 84.5 | (4) |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 47.1 | 46.2 | 47.8 | 46.8 | 45.5 | 47.5 | 48.4 | 47.0 | 48.3 | 49.2 | 49.5 |
| Wholesale trade | 70.6 | 69.9 | 72.3 | 70.8 | 68.1 | 67.1 | 70.1 | 66.2 | 64.1 | 66.6 | (4) |
| Retail trade | 42.3 | 41.4 | 42.4 | 41.8 | 42.2 | 43.4 | 43.3 | 42.5 | 44.5 | 45.2 | (4) |
| Finance and service | 48.6 | 46.8 | 45.3 | 44.5 | 44.4 | 43.9 | 44.3 | 45.3 | 44.5 | 44.7 | 46.0 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate | 68.8 | 68.6 | 69.7 | 68.2 | 68.6 | 67.3 | 66.0 | 66.1 | 68.8 | 67.8 | (4) |
| Business and repair services | 56.8 | 55.9 | 54.6 | 53.7 | 53.7 | 55.8 | 53.8 | 53.7 | 55.3 | 59.4 | (4) |
| Private households | 17.1 | 13.9 | 14.9 | 13.5 | 13.8 | 15.4 | 16.6 | 17.5 | 16.6 | 17.5 | 17.4 |
| Personal services, excluding private households | 43.1 | 42.7 | 43.8 | 37.4 | 41.8 | 41.2 | 42.7 | 43.6 | 41.8 | 43.3 | (4) |
| Entertainment and recreation services | 31.2 | 28.7 | 25.3 | 24.6 | 26.6 | 26.8 | 28.6 | 29.1 | 30.9 | 28.3 | (4) |
| Medical and other health services | 52.9 | 52.5 | 54.9 | 55.5 | 54.2 | 55.1 | 53.9 | 55.1 | 55.1 | 53.4 | (4) |
| Welfare and religious services | 52.3 | 51.5 | 51.7 | 53.1 | 51.8 | 56.4 | 59.5 | 55.0 | 48.6 | 54.1 | (4) |
| Educational services | 48.5 | 48.0 | 41.9 | 43.2 | 41.8 | 40.3 | 42.4 | 43.0 | 40.5 | 42.5 | (4) |
| Other professional services | 60.8 | 60.1 | 57.4 | 61.2 | 59.8 | 56.9 | 60.7 | 59.1 | 58.5 | 59.6 | (4) |
| Public administration | 76.3 | 76.2 | 77.6 | 79.8 | 78.8 | 78.3 | 77.8 | 75.0 | 77.7 | 78.5 | 77.8 |
| Self-employed workers | 64.3 | 62.7 | 62.6 | 65.0 | 65.1 | 63.1 | 61.9 | 65.4 | 66.4 | 66.9 | 67.2 |
| Unpaid family workers | 32.3 | 30.5 | 30.2 | 27.0 | 23.6 | 25.8 | 25.1 | 23.6 | 24.0 | 24.3 | 25.8 |

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[1] Data for 1950–56 appeared in previous issues of the *Manpower Report*.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[4] Not available.

# Table B–17. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–66

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966]

| Item | 1966 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 [2] | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | |
| **BOTH SEXES** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total working or looking for work | 87,540 | 89,924 | 87,591 | 86,837 | 85,038 | 83,944 | 81,963 | 82,204 | 79,494 | 78,787 | 78,585 |
| Percent with unemployment | 13.0 | 12.9 | 14.1 | 16.2 | 16.7 | 18.2 | 18.4 | 17.2 | 15.3 | 17.9 | 14.7 |
| Number with unemployment | 11,387 | 11,602 | 12,334 | 14,052 | 14,211 | 15,256 | 15,096 | 14,151 | 12,195 | 14,120 | 11,568 |
| Did not work but looked for work | 1,274 | 1,371 | 1,405 | 1,713 | 1,811 | 1,887 | 1,676 | 1,586 | 1,332 | 1,670 | 921 |
| Worked during year | 10,113 | 10,231 | 10,929 | 12,339 | 12,400 | 13,369 | 13,420 | 12,565 | 10,863 | 12,449 | 10,647 |
| Year-round workers [3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 1,269 | 1,269 | 1,207 | 1,121 | 1,239 | 1,129 | 1,036 | 1,062 | 840 | 1,180 | 1,119 |
| Part-year workers [4] with unemployment of | 8,844 | 8,962 | 9,722 | 11,218 | 11,161 | 12,240 | 12,384 | 11,503 | 10,023 | 11,269 | 9,528 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 3,348 | 3,403 | 3,151 | 3,060 | 2,708 | 2,993 | 3,098 | 2,834 | 2,569 | 2,387 | 2,443 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 2,038 | 2,059 | 2,208 | 2,550 | 2,407 | 2,759 | 2,559 | 2,704 | 2,348 | 2,367 | 2,339 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 1,047 | 1,058 | 1,286 | 1,514 | 1,595 | 1,700 | 1,669 | 1,517 | 1,403 | 1,479 | 1,394 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 1,567 | 1,585 | 1,995 | 2,444 | 2,622 | 2,768 | 2,849 | 2,466 | 1,070 | 2,556 | 1,898 |
| 27 weeks or more | 844 | 857 | 1,082 | 1,650 | 1,840 | 2,020 | 2,209 | 1,982 | 1,633 | 2,482 | 1,454 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 3,411 | 3,458 | 3,942 | 4,755 | 4,635 | 5,219 | 4,963 | 4,602 | 4,228 | 5,117 | 4,377 |
| 2 spells | 1,465 | 1,479 | 1,765 | 2,342 | 2,246 | 2,524 | 2,299 | 2,034 | 1,813 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 1,946 | 1,979 | 2,177 | 2,413 | 2,389 | 2,695 | 2,664 | 2,568 | 2,415 | (5) | (5) |
| **MALE** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total working or looking for work | 52,103 | 53,576 | 52,958 | 52,645 | 51,817 | 51,412 | 50,610 | 50,686 | 49,523 | 49,158 | 49,444 |
| Percent with unemployment | 12.5 | 12.4 | 14.0 | 16.3 | 17.2 | 18.8 | 19.4 | 18.4 | 16.5 | 19.6 | 15.7 |
| Number with unemployment | 6,503 | 6,658 | 7,428 | 8,563 | 8,923 | 9,686 | 9,846 | 9,318 | 8,163 | 9,645 | 7,758 |
| Did not work but looked for work | 395 | 467 | 539 | 667 | 778 | 773 | 756 | 653 | 550 | 778 | 735 |
| Worked during year | 6,108 | 6,191 | 6,889 | 7,896 | 8,145 | 8,913 | 9,090 | 8,665 | 7,613 | 8,867 | 7,023 |
| Year-round workers [3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 923 | 923 | 886 | 815 | 934 | 817 | 791 | 779 | 657 | 863 | 447 |
| Part-year workers [4] with unemployment of | 5,185 | 5,268 | 6,003 | 7,081 | 7,211 | 8,096 | 8,299 | 7,886 | 6,956 | 8,004 | 6,576 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 1,727 | 1,767 | 1,694 | 1,675 | 1,521 | 1,668 | 1,709 | 1,651 | 1,472 | 1,435 | 1,475 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 1,286 | 1,300 | 1,391 | 1,706 | 1,609 | 1,891 | 1,878 | 1,907 | 1,688 | 1,692 | 1,646 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 707 | 718 | 872 | 1,038 | 1,122 | 1,194 | 1,217 | 1,123 | 1,031 | 1,094 | 1,030 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 972 | 980 | 1,347 | 1,605 | 1,802 | 1,960 | 2,027 | 1,821 | 1,564 | 1,950 | 1,385 |
| 27 weeks or more | 493 | 503 | 699 | 1,057 | 1,157 | 1,383 | 1,468 | 1,384 | 1,201 | 1,835 | 1,039 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 2,295 | 2,328 | 2,769 | 3,314 | 3,269 | 3,805 | 3,618 | 3,430 | 3,173 | 3,850 | 3,171 |
| 2 spells | 900 | 913 | 1,147 | 1,576 | 1,526 | 1,788 | 1,603 | 1,453 | 1,293 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 1,395 | 1,415 | 1,622 | 1,738 | 1,743 | 2,017 | 2,015 | 1,977 | 1,880 | (5) | (5) |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total working or looking for work | 35,437 | 36,348 | 34,633 | 34,192 | 33,221 | 32,532 | 31,353 | 31,518 | 29,971 | 29,628 | 29,141 |
| Percent with unemployment | 13.8 | 13.6 | 14.2 | 16.1 | 15.9 | 17.1 | 16.7 | 15.3 | 13.5 | 15.1 | 13.1 |
| Number with unemployment | 4,884 | 4,944 | 4,906 | 5,489 | 5,288 | 5,570 | 5,250 | 4,833 | 4,032 | 4,474 | 3,810 |
| Did not work but looked for work | 879 | 904 | 866 | 1,046 | 1,033 | 1,114 | 920 | 993 | 782 | 892 | 186 |
| Worked during year | 4,005 | 4,040 | 4,040 | 4,443 | 4,255 | 4,456 | 4,330 | 3,900 | 3,250 | 3,582 | 3,624 |
| Year-round workers [3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 346 | 346 | 321 | 306 | 305 | 312 | 245 | 283 | 184 | 317 | 672 |
| Part-year workers [4] with unemployment of | 3,659 | 3,694 | 3,719 | 4,137 | 3,950 | 4,144 | 4,085 | 3,617 | 3,067 | 3,265 | 2,952 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 1,621 | 1,636 | 1,457 | 1,385 | 1,187 | 1,325 | 1,389 | 1,183 | 1,097 | 952 | 968 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 752 | 759 | 817 | 844 | 798 | 868 | 681 | 797 | 660 | 675 | 693 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 340 | 340 | 414 | 476 | 473 | 506 | 452 | 394 | 372 | 385 | 363 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 595 | 605 | 640 | 839 | 809 | 808 | 822 | 645 | 506 | 606 | 513 |
| 27 weeks or more | 351 | 354 | 383 | 593 | 683 | 637 | 741 | 598 | 432 | 647 | 415 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 1,116 | 1,130 | 1,173 | 1,441 | 1,366 | 1,414 | 1,345 | 1,172 | 1,055 | 1,267 | 1,206 |
| 2 spells | 565 | 566 | 618 | 766 | 720 | 736 | 696 | 581 | 520 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 551 | 564 | 555 | 675 | 646 | 678 | 649 | 591 | 535 | (5) | (5) |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table B–17. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–66—Continued

| Item | 1966[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959[2] | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Percent distribution of unemployed persons with work experience during the year |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| BOTH SEXES |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total who worked during year | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Year-round workers[3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 12.5 | 12.4 | 11.0 | 9.1 | 10.0 | 8.4 | 7.7 | 8.5 | 7.7 | 9.5 | 10.5 |
| Part-year workers[4] with unemployment of | 87.5 | 87.6 | 89.0 | 90.9 | 90.0 | 91.6 | 92.3 | 91.5 | 92.3 | 90.5 | 89.5 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 33.1 | 33.3 | 28.8 | 24.8 | 21.8 | 22.4 | 23.1 | 22.6 | 23.6 | 19.2 | 22.9 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 20.2 | 20.1 | 20.2 | 20.7 | 19.4 | 20.6 | 19.1 | 21.5 | 21.6 | 19.0 | 22.0 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 10.4 | 10.3 | 11.8 | 12.3 | 12.9 | 12.7 | 12.4 | 12.1 | 12.9 | 11.9 | 13.1 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 15.5 | 15.5 | 18.3 | 19.8 | 21.1 | 20.7 | 21.2 | 19.6 | 19.1 | 20.5 | 17.8 |
| 27 weeks or more | 8.3 | 8.4 | 9.9 | 13.4 | 14.8 | 15.1 | 16.5 | 15.8 | 15.0 | 19.9 | 13.7 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 33.7 | 33.8 | 36.1 | 38.5 | 37.4 | 39.0 | 37.0 | 36.6 | 38.9 | 41.1 | 41.1 |
| 2 spells | 14.5 | 14.5 | 16.1 | 19.0 | 18.1 | 18.9 | 17.1 | 16.2 | 16.7 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 19.2 | 19.3 | 19.9 | 19.6 | 19.3 | 20.2 | 19.8 | 20.4 | 22.2 | (5) | (5) |
| MALE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total who worked during year | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Year-round workers[3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 15.1 | 14.9 | 12.9 | 10.3 | 11.5 | 9.2 | 8.7 | 9.0 | 8.6 | 9.7 | 6.4 |
| Part-year workers[4] with unemployment of | 84.9 | 85.1 | 87.1 | 89.7 | 88.5 | 90.8 | 91.3 | 91.0 | 91.4 | 90.3 | 93.6 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 28.3 | 28.5 | 24.6 | 21.2 | 18.7 | 18.7 | 18.8 | 19.1 | 19.3 | 16.2 | 21.0 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 21.1 | 21.0 | 20.2 | 21.6 | 19.8 | 21.2 | 20.7 | 22.0 | 22.2 | 19.1 | 23.4 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 11.6 | 11.6 | 12.7 | 13.1 | 13.8 | 13.4 | 13.4 | 13.0 | 13.5 | 12.3 | 14.7 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 15.9 | 15.8 | 19.6 | 20.3 | 22.1 | 22.0 | 22.3 | 21.0 | 20.5 | 22.0 | 19.7 |
| 27 weeks or more | 8.1 | 8.1 | 10.1 | 13.4 | 14.2 | 15.5 | 16.1 | 16.0 | 15.8 | 20.7 | 14.8 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 37.6 | 37.6 | 40.2 | 42.0 | 40.1 | 42.7 | 39.8 | 39.6 | 41.7 | 43.4 | 45.2 |
| 2 spells | 14.7 | 14.7 | 16.6 | 20.0 | 18.7 | 20.1 | 17.6 | 16.8 | 17.0 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 22.8 | 22.9 | 23.5 | 22.0 | 21.4 | 22.6 | 22.2 | 22.8 | 24.7 | (5) | (5) |
| FEMALE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total who worked during year | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Year-round workers[3] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment | 8.6 | 8.6 | 7.9 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 5.7 | 7.3 | 5.7 | 8.8 | 18.5 |
| Part-year workers[4] with unemployment of | 91.4 | 91.4 | 92.1 | 93.1 | 92.8 | 93.0 | 94.3 | 92.7 | 94.4 | 91.2 | 81.5 |
| 1 to 4 weeks | 40.5 | 40.5 | 36.1 | 31.2 | 27.9 | 29.7 | 32.1 | 30.3 | 33.8 | 26.6 | 26.7 |
| 5 to 10 weeks | 18.8 | 18.8 | 20.2 | 19.[illegible] | 18.8 | 19.5 | 15.7 | 20.4 | 20.3 | 18.8 | 19.1 |
| 11 to 14 weeks | 8.5 | 8.4 | 10.2 | 10.7 | 11.1 | 11.4 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 11.4 | 10.7 | 10.0 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 14.9 | 15.0 | 16.0 | 18.9 | 19.0 | 18.1 | 19.0 | 16.5 | 15.6 | 16.9 | 14.2 |
| 27 weeks or more | 8.8 | 8.8 | 9.5 | 13.3 | 16.1 | 14.3 | 17.1 | 15.3 | 13.3 | 18.1 | 11.5 |
| Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment | 27.9 | 28.0 | 29.0 | 32.4 | 32.1 | 31.7 | 31.1 | 30.1 | 32.5 | 35.4 | 33.3 |
| 2 spells | 14.1 | 14.0 | 15.3 | 17.2 | 16.9 | 16.5 | 16.1 | 14.9 | 16.0 | (5) | (5) |
| 3 spells or more | 13.8 | 14.0 | 13.7 | 15.2 | 15.2 | 15.2 | 15.0 | 15.2 | 16.5 | (5) | (5) |

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[2] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years. This inclusion resulted in an increase of about 50,000 in the total with unemployment in 1959.

[3] Worked 50 weeks or more.

[4] Worked less than 50 weeks.

[5] Not available.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1966 benchmark levels. Beginning 1959, the data include Alaska and Hawaii and are therefore not strictly comparable with previous years. This inclusion resulted in an increase of about 210,000 in the 1959 average of total nonagricultural employment. For hours and earnings and labor turnover data, the effect of the inclusion was insignificant.

## Table C–1. Total Employment on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Year | Total | Mining | Contract construction | Manufacturing | | | Transportation and public utilities | Wholesale and retail trade | | | Finance, insurance, real estate | Services | Government | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Total | Durable goods | Nondurable goods | | Total | Wholesale | Retail | | | Total | Federal [1] | State and local |
| | Number (thousands) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 43,881 | 955 | 1,982 | 15,545 | 8,385 | 7,159 | 4,165 | 8,955 | 2,361 | 6,595 | 1,754 | 5,050 | 5,474 | 1,892 | 3,582 |
| 1948 | 44,891 | 994 | 2,169 | 15,582 | 8,326 | 7,256 | 4,189 | 9,272 | 2,489 | 6,783 | 1,829 | 5,206 | 5,650 | 1,863 | 3,787 |
| 1949 | 43,778 | 930 | 2,165 | 14,441 | 7,489 | 6,953 | 4,001 | 9,264 | 2,487 | 6,778 | 1,857 | 5,264 | 5,856 | 1,908 | 3,948 |
| 1950 | 45,222 | 901 | 2,333 | 15,241 | 8,094 | 7,147 | 4,034 | 9,386 | 2,518 | 6,868 | 1,919 | 5,382 | 6,026 | 1,928 | 4,098 |
| 1951 | 47,849 | 929 | 2,603 | 16,393 | 9,089 | 7,304 | 4,226 | 9,742 | 2,606 | 7,136 | 1,991 | 5,576 | 6,389 | 2,302 | 4,087 |
| 1952 | 48,825 | 898 | 2,634 | 16,632 | 9,349 | 7,284 | 4,248 | 10,004 | 2,687 | 7,317 | 2,069 | 5,730 | 6,609 | 2,420 | 4,188 |
| 1953 | 50,232 | 866 | 2,623 | 17,549 | 10,110 | 7,438 | 4,290 | 10,247 | 2,727 | 7,520 | 2,146 | 5,867 | 6,645 | 2,305 | 4,340 |
| 1954 | 49,022 | 791 | 2,612 | 16,314 | 9,129 | 7,185 | 4,084 | 10,235 | 2,739 | 7,496 | 2,234 | 6,002 | 6,751 | 2,188 | 4,563 |
| 1955 | 50,675 | 792 | 2,802 | 16,882 | 9,541 | 7,340 | 4,141 | 10,535 | 2,796 | 7,740 | 2,335 | 6,274 | 6,914 | 2,187 | 4,727 |
| 1956 | 52,408 | 822 | 2,999 | 17,243 | 9,834 | 7,409 | 4,244 | 10,858 | 2,884 | 7,974 | 2,429 | 6,536 | 7,277 | 2,209 | 5,069 |
| 1957 | 52,894 | 828 | 2,923 | 17,174 | 9,856 | 7,319 | 4,241 | 10,886 | 2,893 | 7,992 | 2,477 | 6,749 | 7,616 | 2,217 | 5,399 |
| 1958 | 51,363 | 751 | 2,778 | 15,945 | 8,830 | 7,116 | 3,976 | 10,750 | 2,848 | 7,902 | 2,519 | 6,806 | 7,839 | 2,191 | 5,648 |
| 1959 | 53,313 | 732 | 2,960 | 16,675 | 9,373 | 7,303 | 4,011 | 11,127 | 2,946 | 8,182 | 2,594 | 7,130 | 8,083 | 2,233 | 5,850 |
| 1960 | 54,234 | 712 | 2,885 | 16,796 | 9,459 | 7,336 | 4,004 | 11,391 | 3,004 | 8,388 | 2,669 | 7,423 | 8,353 | 2,270 | 6,083 |
| 1961 | 54,042 | 672 | 2,816 | 16,326 | 9,070 | 7,256 | 3,903 | 11,337 | 2,993 | 8,344 | 2,731 | 7,664 | 8,594 | 2,279 | 6,315 |
| 1962 | 55,596 | 650 | 2,902 | 16,853 | 9,480 | 7,373 | 3,906 | 11,566 | 3,056 | 8,511 | 2,800 | 8,028 | 8,890 | 2,340 | 6,550 |
| 1963 | 56,702 | 635 | 2,963 | 16,995 | 9,616 | 7,380 | 3,903 | 11,778 | 3,104 | 8,675 | 2,877 | 8,325 | 9,225 | 2,358 | 6,868 |
| 1964 | 58,332 | 634 | 3,050 | 17,274 | 9,816 | 7,458 | 3,951 | 12,160 | 3,189 | 8,971 | 2,957 | 8,709 | 9,596 | 2,348 | 7,249 |
| 1965 | 60,832 | 632 | 3,186 | 18,062 | 10,406 | 7,656 | 4,036 | 12,716 | 3,312 | 9,404 | 3,023 | 9,087 | 10,091 | 2,378 | 7,714 |
| 1966 | 63,982 | 625 | 3,292 | 19,186 | 11,256 | 7,930 | 4,151 | 13,211 | 3,438 | 9,773 | 3,102 | 9,545 | 10,871 | 2,564 | 8,307 |
| 1967 [2] | 66,066 | 613 | 3,265 | 19,336 | 11,325 | 8,012 | 4,262 | 13,676 | 3,555 | 10,121 | 3,228 | 10,072 | 11,616 | 2,719 | 8,897 |
| | Percent distribution | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 100.0 | 2.2 | 4.5 | 35.4 | 19.1 | 16.3 | 9.5 | 20.4 | 5.4 | 15.0 | 4.0 | 11.5 | 12.5 | 4.3 | 8.2 |
| 1948 | 100.0 | 2.2 | 4.8 | 34.7 | 18.5 | 16.2 | 9.3 | 20.7 | 5.5 | 15.1 | 4.1 | 11.6 | 12.6 | 4.2 | 8.4 |
| 1949 | 100.0 | 2.1 | 4.9 | 33.0 | 17.1 | 15.9 | 9.1 | 21.2 | 5.7 | 15.5 | 4.2 | 12.0 | 13.4 | 4.4 | 9.0 |
| 1950 | 100.0 | 2.0 | 5.2 | 33.7 | 17.9 | 15.8 | 8.9 | 20.8 | 5.6 | 15.2 | 4.2 | 11.9 | 13.3 | 4.3 | 9.1 |
| 1951 | 100.0 | 1.9 | 5.4 | 34.3 | 19.0 | 15.3 | 8.8 | 20.4 | 5.4 | 14.9 | 4.2 | 11.7 | 13.4 | 4.8 | 8.5 |
| 1952 | 100.0 | 1.8 | 5.4 | 34.1 | 19.1 | 14.9 | 8.7 | 20.5 | 5.5 | 15.0 | 4.2 | 11.7 | 13.5 | 5.0 | 8.6 |
| 1953 | 100.0 | 1.7 | 5.2 | 34.9 | 20.1 | 14.8 | 8.5 | 20.4 | 5.4 | 15.0 | 4.3 | 11.7 | 13.2 | 4.6 | 8.6 |
| 1954 | 100.0 | 1.6 | 5.3 | 33.3 | 18.6 | 14.7 | 8.3 | 20.9 | 5.6 | 15.3 | 4.6 | 12.2 | 13.8 | 4.5 | 9.3 |
| 1955 | 100.0 | 1.6 | 5.5 | 33.3 | 18.8 | 14.5 | 8.2 | 20.8 | 5.5 | 15.3 | 4.6 | 12.4 | 13.6 | 4.3 | 9.3 |
| 1956 | 100.0 | 1.6 | 5.7 | 32.9 | 18.8 | 14.1 | 8.1 | 20.7 | 5.5 | 15.2 | 4.6 | 12.5 | 13.9 | 4.2 | 9.7 |
| 1957 | 100.0 | 1.6 | 5.5 | 32.5 | 18.6 | 13.8 | 8.0 | 20.6 | 5.5 | 15.1 | 4.7 | 12.8 | 14.4 | 4.2 | 10.2 |
| 1958 | 100.0 | 1.5 | 5.4 | 31.0 | 17.2 | 13.9 | 7.7 | 20.9 | 5.5 | 15.4 | 4.9 | 13.3 | 15.3 | 4.3 | 11.0 |
| 1959 | 100.0 | 1.4 | 5.6 | 31.3 | 17.6 | 13.7 | 7.5 | 20.9 | 5.5 | 15.3 | 4.9 | 13.4 | 15.2 | 4.2 | 11.0 |
| 1960 | 100.0 | 1.3 | 5.3 | 31.0 | 17.4 | 13.5 | 7.4 | 21.0 | 5.5 | 15.5 | 4.9 | 13.7 | 15.4 | 4.2 | 11.2 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 30.2 | 16.8 | 13.4 | 7.2 | 21.0 | 5.5 | 15.4 | 5.1 | 14.2 | 15.9 | 4.2 | 11.7 |
| 1962 | 100.0 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 30.3 | 17.1 | 13.3 | 7.0 | 20.8 | 5.5 | 15.3 | 5.0 | 14.4 | 16.0 | 4.2 | 11.8 |
| 1963 | 100.0 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 30.0 | 17.0 | 13.0 | 6.9 | 20.8 | 5.5 | 15.3 | 5.1 | 14.7 | 16.3 | 4.2 | 12.1 |
| 1964 | 100.0 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 29.6 | 16.8 | 12.8 | 6.8 | 20.8 | 5.5 | 15.4 | 5.1 | 14.9 | 16.5 | 4.0 | 12.4 |
| 1965 | 100.0 | 1.0 | 5.2 | 29.7 | 17.1 | 12.6 | 6.6 | 20.9 | 5.4 | 15.5 | 5.0 | 14.9 | 16.6 | 3.9 | 12.7 |
| 1966 | 100.0 | 1.0 | 5.1 | 30.0 | 17.6 | 12.4 | 6.5 | 20.6 | 5.4 | 15.3 | 4.8 | 14.9 | 17.0 | 4.0 | 13.0 |
| 1967 [2] | 100.0 | .9 | 4.9 | 29.3 | 17.1 | 12.1 | 6.5 | 20.7 | 5.4 | 15.3 | 4.9 | 15.2 | 17.6 | 4.1 | 13.5 |

[1] Data are prepared by the U.S. Civil Service Commission and relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

[2] Preliminary.

## Table C–2. Total Employment on Manufacturing Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Thousands]

| Industry | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Manufacturing | 19,336 | 19,186 | 18,062 | 17,274 | 16,995 | 16,853 | 16,326 | 16,796 | 16,675 | 15,945 | 17,174 |
| Durable goods | 11,325 | 11,256 | 10,406 | 9,816 | 9,616 | 9,480 | 9,070 | 9,459 | 9,373 | 8,830 | 9,856 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 292.3 | 256.0 | 225.8 | 243.9 | 265.5 | 264.4 | 244.2 | 220.0 | 203.5 | 158.1 | 140.2 |
| Lumber and wood products | 592.9 | 612.6 | 606.9 | 604.2 | 592.6 | 589.3 | 582.9 | 626.8 | 658.8 | 615.0 | 655.3 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 456.2 | 461.7 | 430.7 | 405.9 | 389.9 | 385.1 | 367.5 | 383.0 | 385.0 | 360.8 | 374.3 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 631.3 | 644.6 | 628.3 | 613.8 | 600.8 | 592.3 | 582.0 | 604.0 | 604.0 | 562.4 | 595.4 |
| Primary metal industries | 1,300.6 | 1,345.4 | 1,301.0 | 1,233.2 | 1,172.2 | 1,165.6 | 1,142.7 | 1,231.2 | 1,182.6 | 1,153.5 | 1,355.3 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 630.4 | 651.3 | 657.3 | 629.2 | 589.9 | 592.8 | 595.5 | 651.4 | 587.3 | 601.1 | 719.9 |
| Fabricated metal products | 1,353.4 | 1,349.1 | 1,269.0 | 1,189.7 | 1,150.1 | 1,127.7 | 1,084.5 | 1,135.3 | 1,122.5 | 1,076.9 | 1,167.3 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 1,969.8 | 1,911.1 | 1,735.3 | 1,609.6 | 1,529.3 | 1,493.2 | 1,418.6 | 1,479.0 | 1,452.1 | 1,362.4 | 1,585.9 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 1,915.7 | 1,896.4 | 1,659.2 | 1,543.8 | 1,553.9 | 1,567.0 | 1,473.3 | 1,467.1 | 1,396.4 | 1,249.0 | 1,343.8 |
| Transportation equipment | 1,926.6 | 1,911.5 | 1,740.6 | 1,604.3 | 1,609.7 | 1,547.0 | 1,448.6 | 1,568.9 | 1,635.0 | 1,594.6 | 1,909.1 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 808.3 | 859.2 | 842.7 | 752.9 | 741.3 | 691.7 | 632.3 | 724.1 | 692.3 | 606.5 | 769.3 |
| Aircraft and parts | 823.4 | 750.5 | 624.2 | 605.4 | 639.2 | 638.4 | 609.7 | 627.9 | 720.6 | 771.0 | 895.8 |
| Instruments and related products | 454.7 | 433.1 | 389.0 | 369.9 | 364.8 | 358.7 | 347.4 | 354.3 | 345.3 | 323.8 | 342.1 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 431.2 | 434.5 | 419.5 | 397.6 | 386.8 | 389.6 | 378.2 | 389.9 | 387.7 | 373.0 | 387.2 |
| Nondurable goods | 8,012 | 7,930 | 7,656 | 7,458 | 7,380 | 7,373 | 7,256 | 7,336 | 7,303 | 7,116 | 7,319 |
| Food and kindred products | 1,789.5 | 1,778.9 | 1,756.7 | 1,750.4 | 1,752.0 | 1,763.0 | 1,775.2 | 1,790.0 | 1,789.6 | 1,772.8 | 1,805.4 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 85.4 | 83.9 | 86.8 | 90.2 | 88.6 | 90.5 | 90.7 | 94.0 | 94.5 | 94.5 | 97.0 |
| Textile mill products | 951.7 | 961.5 | 925.6 | 892.0 | 885.4 | 902.3 | 893.4 | 924.4 | 945.7 | 918.8 | 981.1 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 1,390.8 | 1,398.8 | 1,354.2 | 1,302.5 | 1,282.8 | 1,263.7 | 1,214.5 | 1,233.2 | 1,225.9 | 1,171.8 | 1,210.1 |
| Paper and allied products | 684.2 | 667.5 | 639.1 | 625.5 | 618.5 | 614.4 | 601.3 | 601.1 | 587.2 | 564.1 | 570.6 |
| Printing and publishing | 1,063.7 | 1,021.8 | 979.4 | 951.5 | 930.6 | 926.4 | 917.3 | 911.3 | 888.5 | 872.6 | 870.0 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 990.9 | 957.9 | 907.8 | 878.6 | 865.3 | 848.5 | 828.2 | 828.2 | 809.2 | 794.1 | 810.0 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 189.5 | 186.0 | 182.9 | 183.9 | 188.7 | 195.3 | 201.9 | 211.9 | 215.5 | 223.8 | 232.2 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 514.2 | 509.8 | 470.8 | 436.0 | 418.5 | 408.4 | 375.3 | 379.0 | 372.7 | 344.3 | 371.9 |
| Leather and leather products | 351.7 | 363.5 | 352.9 | 347.6 | 349.2 | 360.7 | 358.2 | 363.4 | 374.0 | 359.2 | 372.7 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Manufacturing | 17,243 | 16,882 | 16,314 | 17,549 | 16,632 | 16,393 | 15,241 | 14,441 | 15,582 | 15,545 |
| Durable goods | 9,834 | 9,541 | 9,129 | 10,110 | 9,349 | 9,089 | 8,094 | 7,489 | 8,326 | 8,385 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 138.5 | 141.2 | 163.3 | 234.3 | 178.7 | 77.0 | 30 | 26 | 28 | 27 |
| Lumber and wood products | 730.9 | 739.6 | 707.9 | 770.7 | 790.4 | 840.2 | 808 | 741 | 818 | 845 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 375.5 | 363.8 | 341.9 | 369.9 | 357.1 | 357.2 | 364 | 317 | 346 | 336 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 605.3 | 588.4 | 552.6 | 581.3 | 564.0 | 587.0 | 547 | 514 | 549 | 537 |
| Primary metal industries | 1,355.3 | 1,322.5 | 1,219.3 | 1,383.1 | 1,282.1 | 1,364.3 | 1,247 | 1,134 | 1,290 | 1,279 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 706.6 | 706.9 | 645.5 | 726.1 | 638.0 | 714.4 | 674 | 610 | 679 | 656 |
| Fabricated metal products | 1,140.4 | 1,122.4 | 1,069.9 | 1,156.4 | 1,064.4 | 1,077.8 | 982 | 881 | 979 | 989 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 1,571.6 | 1,448.5 | 1,417.7 | 1,554.4 | 1,517.4 | 1,456.6 | 1,210 | 1,182 | 1,372 | 1,375 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 1,323.1 | 1,240.8 | 1,190.4 | 1,333.3 | 1,185.0 | 1,113.6 | 991 | 862 | 991 | 1,035 |
| Transportation equipment | 1,852.5 | 1,854.6 | 1,754.1 | 1,969.1 | 1,703.2 | 1,515.1 | 1,265 | 1,210 | 1,270 | 1,275 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 792.5 | 891.2 | 765.7 | 917.3 | 777.5 | 833.3 | 816 | 751 | 781 | 768 |
| Aircraft and parts | 837.3 | 761.3 | 782.9 | 795.5 | 670.6 | 467.8 | 283 | 264 | 238 | 239 |
| Instruments and related products | 337.8 | 323.2 | 321.2 | 337.1 | 312.5 | 294.3 | 250 | 239 | 262 | 267 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 403.0 | 396.2 | 390.7 | 420.9 | 393.7 | 406.0 | 400 | 385 | 422 | 421 |
| Nondurable goods | 7,409 | 7,340 | 7,185 | 7,438 | 7,284 | 7,304 | 7,147 | 6,953 | 7,256 | 7,159 |
| Food and kindred products | 1,841.9 | 1,824.7 | 1,818.3 | 1,838.9 | 1,827.8 | 1,823.2 | 1,790 | 1,778 | 1,801 | 1,799 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 99.6 | 102.5 | 103.3 | 103.6 | 105.6 | 104.1 | 103 | 109 | 114 | 118 |
| Textile mill products | 1,032.0 | 1,050.2 | 1,042.3 | 1,154.8 | 1,163.4 | 1,237.7 | 1,256 | 1,187 | 1,332 | 1,299 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 1,223.4 | 1,219.2 | 1,183.6 | 1,248.0 | 1,216.4 | 1,207.2 | 1,202 | 1,173 | 1,190 | 1,154 |
| Paper and allied products | 567.8 | 550.0 | 531.1 | 530.4 | 503.7 | 511.2 | 485 | 455 | 473 | 465 |
| Printing and publishing | 862.0 | 834.7 | 813.9 | 802.8 | 779.9 | 767.6 | 748 | 740 | 740 | 721 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 796.5 | 773.1 | 752.7 | 768.2 | 730.1 | 707.0 | 640 | 618 | 655 | 649 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 235.5 | 237.1 | 238.1 | 241.4 | 234.6 | 231.3 | 218 | 221 | 228 | 221 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 369.2 | 363.3 | 328.4 | 361.0 | 338.3 | 334.4 | 311 | 283 | 312 | 323 |
| Leather and leather products | 382.7 | 385.9 | 373.0 | 389.2 | 384.2 | 380.0 | 395 | 389 | 412 | 412 |

[1] Preliminary.

# Table C–3. Production or Nonsupervisory Workers[1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Thousands]

| Industry | 1967[2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[3] | 45,174 | 44,234 | 42,309 | 40,589 | 39,553 | 38,979 | 37,989 | 38,516 | 38,080 | 36,608 | 38,384 |
| Mining | 469 | 485 | 494 | 497 | 498 | 512 | 532 | 570 | 590 | 611 | 695 |
| Contract construction | 2,760 | 2,799 | 2,710 | 2,597 | 2,523 | 2,462 | 2,390 | 2,459 | 2,538 | 2,384 | 2,537 |
| Manufacturing | 14,225 | 14,273 | 13,434 | 12,781 | 12,555 | 12,488 | 12,083 | 12,586 | 12,603 | 11,997 | 13,189 |
| Durable goods | 8,281 | 8,349 | 7,715 | 7,213 | 7,027 | 6,935 | 6,618 | 7,028 | 7,033 | 6,579 | 7,550 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 150.7 | 121.8 | 96.1 | 104.1 | 115.2 | 119.3 | 110.6 | 101.9 | 98.0 | 82.4 | 80.4 |
| Lumber and wood products | 515.2 | 535.0 | 532.4 | 531.6 | 526.6 | 526.7 | 518.4 | 561.1 | 592.2 | 549.4 | 588.0 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 375.5 | 382.6 | 357.4 | 337.0 | 324.1 | 319.6 | 303.9 | 318.5 | 321.0 | 298.7 | 313.0 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 502.2 | 517.5 | 504.6 | 493.8 | 483.9 | 477.7 | 469.4 | 491.8 | 496.2 | 457.9 | 492.8 |
| Primary metal industries | 1,042.9 | 1,095.7 | 1,062.0 | 1,003.6 | 947.4 | 937.3 | 914.6 | 993.8 | 953.8 | 928.0 | 1,117.9 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 505.8 | 530.4 | 538.4 | 515.6 | 479.1 | 476.3 | 478.4 | 528.4 | 470.9 | 486.5 | 600.1 |
| Fabricated metal products | 1,045.8 | 1,050.2 | 982.7 | 914.3 | 881.6 | 863.7 | 826.0 | 874.3 | 868.5 | 824.5 | 913.2 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 1,370.7 | 1,344.8 | 1,214.8 | 1,120.4 | 1,059.2 | 1,037.8 | 976.4 | 1,035.9 | 1,027.2 | 945.5 | 1,143.1 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 1,294.5 | 1,316.8 | 1,140.5 | 1,036.5 | 1,034.3 | 1,050.7 | 979.4 | 996.3 | 969.4 | 857.3 | 958.7 |
| Transportation equipment | 1,356.5 | 1,361.0 | 1,240.7 | 1,119.6 | 1,112.3 | 1,059.9 | 992.7 | 1,107.4 | 1,163.4 | 1,120.6 | 1,395.0 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 621.3 | 668.4 | 658.9 | 579.2 | 573.6 | 534.0 | 479.1 | 563.3 | 537.5 | 452.5 | 601.7 |
| Aircraft and parts | 495.8 | 444.7 | 356.3 | 338.6 | 350.8 | 349.1 | 347.7 | 369.6 | 445.7 | 491.9 | 591.4 |
| Instruments and related products | 285.8 | 276.6 | 248.1 | 234.0 | 232.3 | 229.1 | 223.1 | 232.6 | 230.3 | 214.8 | 233.1 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 340.9 | 346.8 | 335.5 | 317.9 | 310.4 | 313.2 | 303.5 | 314.3 | 312.9 | 299.5 | 315.3 |
| Nondurable goods | 5,944 | 5,925 | 5,719 | 5,569 | 5,527 | 5,553 | 5,465 | 5,559 | 5,570 | 5,419 | 5,638 |
| Food and kindred products | 1,187.7 | 1,180.9 | 1,159.1 | 1,157.3 | 1,167.1 | 1,178.4 | 1,191.1 | 1,211.8 | 1,222.1 | 1,222.0 | 1,263.2 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 73.0 | 71.5 | 74.8 | 78.4 | 76.6 | 78.7 | 79.6 | 83.3 | 83.9 | 84.1 | 85.3 |
| Textile mill products | 844.4 | 857.1 | 826.7 | 798.2 | 793.4 | 812.1 | 805.0 | 835.1 | 857.4 | 832.5 | 893.3 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 1,231.9 | 1,243.0 | 1,205.6 | 1,158.3 | 1,138.0 | 1,122.9 | 1,079.6 | 1,098.2 | 1,091.4 | 1,039.5 | 1,072.0 |
| Paper and allied products | 530.8 | 519.0 | 497.7 | 488.8 | 486.4 | 486.0 | 478.0 | 479.7 | 471.8 | 454.1 | 463.4 |
| Printing and publishing | 671.5 | 649.5 | 620.6 | 602.1 | 590.3 | 594.5 | 591.7 | 588.9 | 575.1 | 563.2 | 563.7 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 586.2 | 572.3 | 546.1 | 529.4 | 525.3 | 519.3 | 505.0 | 509.9 | 505.6 | 493.7 | 519.7 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 118.6 | 115.8 | 112.9 | 114.2 | 119.9 | 125.5 | 129.9 | 137.9 | 139.9 | 146.9 | 156.6 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 395.2 | 397.2 | 365.9 | 336.3 | 322.7 | 316.5 | 288.3 | 292.8 | 289.8 | 264.4 | 290.1 |
| Leather and leather products | 304.2 | 318.4 | 310.0 | 305.5 | 307.8 | 318.9 | 316.4 | 320.9 | 332.9 | 318.2 | 331.0 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 12,179 | 11,786 | 11,358 | 10,869 | 10,560 | 10.400 | 10,234 | 10,315 | 10,087 | 9,736 | 9,923 |
| Wholesale trade | 2,995 | 2,911 | 2,814 | 2,719 | 2,656 | 2,625 | 2,584 | 2,605 | 2,562 | 2,477 | 2,541 |
| Retail trade | 9,185 | 8,876 | 8,544 | 8,151 | 7,904 | 7,775 | 7,650 | 7,710 | 7,525 | 7,259 | 7,382 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[4] | 2,567 | 2,478 | 2,426 | 2,386 | 2,329 | 2,274 | 2,225 | 2,181 | 2,121 | 2,063 | 2,031 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[3] | 38,495 | 37,500 | 36,276 | 37,694 | 36,643 | 36,225 | 34,349 | 33,159 | 34,489 | 33,747 |
| Mining | 701 | 680 | 686 | 765 | 801 | 840 | 816 | 839 | 906 | 871 |
| Contract construction | 2,613 | 2,440 | 2,281 | 2,305 | 2,324 | 2,308 | 2,069 | 1,919 | 1,924 | 1,759 |
| Manufacturing | 13,436 | 13,288 | 12,817 | 14,055 | 13,359 | 13,368 | 12,523 | 11,790 | 12,910 | 12,990 |
| Durable goods | 7,669 | 7,548 | 7,194 | 8,154 | 7,550 | 7,480 | 6,705 | 6,122 | 6,925 | 7,028 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 84.9 | 91.7 | 113.1 | 173.6 | 130.2 | 59.3 | 23 | 20 | 23 | 22 |
| Lumber and wood products | 661.8 | 672.3 | 640.4 | 699.9 | 719.9 | 771.2 | 745 | 680 | 757 | 783 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 315.5 | 307.0 | 287.7 | 315.9 | 305.6 | 307.1 | 317 | 274 | 304 | 296 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 507.0 | 495.6 | 464.3 | 493.6 | 479.8 | 507.1 | 473 | 443 | 479 | 471 |
| Primary metal industries | 1,131.6 | 1,115.8 | 1,017.9 | 1,172.6 | 1,084.7 | 1,175.1 | 1,075 | 968 | 1,121 | 1,114 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 595.4 | 604.5 | 546.1 | 620.4 | 541.5 | 620.2 | 587 | 527 | 594 | 575 |
| Fabricated metal products | 900.7 | 897.8 | 851.1 | 937.4 | 859.4 | 883.0 | 812 | 714 | 809 | 826 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 1,158.5 | 1,069.2 | 1,046.2 | 1,182.9 | 1,163.9 | 1,129.7 | 929 | 900 | 1,074 | 1,087 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 975.4 | 924.2 | 883.8 | 1,028.6 | 909.1 | 865.8 | 770 | 638 | 761 | 810 |
| Transportation equipment | 1,364.3 | 1,414.1 | 1,331.4 | 1,542.9 | 1,331.4 | 1,213.1 | 1,029 | 976 | 1,027 | 1,039 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 619.5 | 718.3 | 601.5 | 739.4 | 618.7 | 681.8 | 677 | 613 | 632 | 626 |
| Aircraft and parts | 561.0 | 525.5 | 560.2 | 586.2 | 495.4 | 348.4 | 209 | 197 | 175 | 177 |
| Instruments and related products | 236.1 | 229.6 | 231.0 | 249.8 | 233.2 | 222.3 | 189 | 181 | 205 | 213 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 333.1 | 330.4 | 326.6 | 356.7 | 332.5 | 346.1 | 344 | 327 | 365 | 367 |
| Nondurable goods | 5,767 | 5,740 | 5,623 | 5,901 | 5,810 | 5,888 | 5,817 | 5,669 | 5,986 | 5,962 |
| Food and kindred products | 1,302.1 | 1,291.7 | 1,296.6 | 1,329.7 | 1,330.9 | 1,338.4 | 1,331 | 1,341 | 1,374 | 1,395 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 90.1 | 94.4 | 95.2 | 95.7 | 97.2 | 96.0 | 95 | 101 | 106 | 110 |
| Textile mill products | 944.3 | 961.6 | 953.2 | 1,063.9 | 1,073.2 | 1,146.2 | 1,169 | 1,103 | 1,248 | 1,220 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 1,088.1 | 1,086.4 | 1,053.4 | 1,114.8 | 1,087.2 | 1,081.3 | 1,080 | 1,053 | 1,073 | 1,047 |
| Paper and allied products | 464.5 | 453.5 | 440.8 | 442.9 | 421.9 | 435.1 | 416 | 390 | 408 | 406 |
| Printing and publishing | 559.6 | 539.0 | 524.9 | 522.0 | 509.7 | 504.5 | 494 | 488 | 494 | 487 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 525.7 | 518.1 | 503.0 | 522.9 | 506.1 | 502.5 | 461 | 449 | 485 | 488 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 161.2 | 163.2 | 166.9 | 173.2 | 168.9 | 172.5 | 165 | 169 | 175 | 170 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 290.7 | 288.3 | 256.7 | 287.8 | 269.9 | 270.5 | 252 | 226 | 253 | 263 |
| Leather and leather products | 340.9 | 344.0 | 332.5 | 348.7 | 344.4 | 340.8 | 355 | 348 | 369 | 374 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 9,933 | 9,675 | 9,456 | 9,510 | 9,333 | 9,091 | 8,742 | 8,595 | 8,629 | 8,241 |
| Wholesale trade | 2,547 | 2,479 | 2,442 | 2,459 | 2,439 | 2,365 | 2,294 | 2,267 | 2,274 | 2,165 |
| Retail trade | 7,386 | 7,196 | 7,014 | 7,051 | 6,894 | 6,726 | 6,448 | 6,328 | 6,355 | 6,076 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[4] | 1,994 | 1,920 | 1,837 | 1,771 | 1,711 | 1,649 | 1,591 | 1,542 | 1,521 | 1,460 |

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[1] For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade and finance, insurance, and real estate, to nonsupervisory workers.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

## Table C–4. Nonproduction-Worker Employment on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Thousands]

| Industry | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[2] | 9,276 | 8,877 | 8,432 | 8,146 | 7,924 | 7,727 | 7,459 | 7,365 | 7,149 | 6,917 | 6,895 |
| Mining | 144 | 140 | 138 | 137 | 137 | 138 | 140 | 142 | 142 | 140 | 133 |
| Contract construction | 505 | 493 | 476 | 453 | 440 | 440 | 426 | 426 | 422 | 394 | 386 |
| Manufacturing | 5,111 | 4,913 | 4,628 | 4,493 | 4,440 | 4,365 | 4,243 | 4,210 | 4,072 | 3,948 | 3,985 |
| Durable goods | 3,044 | 2,907 | 2,691 | 2,603 | 2,589 | 2,545 | 2,452 | 2,431 | 2,340 | 2,251 | 2,306 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 142 | 134 | 130 | 140 | 150 | 145 | 134 | 118 | 106 | 76 | 60 |
| Lumber and wood products | 78 | 78 | 75 | 73 | 66 | 63 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 66 | 67 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 81 | 79 | 73 | 69 | 66 | 66 | 64 | 64 | 64 | 62 | 61 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 129 | 127 | 124 | 120 | 117 | 115 | 113 | 112 | 108 | 104 | 102 |
| Primary metal industries | 258 | 250 | 239 | 230 | 225 | 228 | 228 | 237 | 229 | 226 | 237 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 125 | 121 | 119 | 114 | 111 | 117 | 117 | 123 | 116 | 115 | 120 |
| Fabricated metal products | 308 | 299 | 286 | 275 | 269 | 264 | 259 | 261 | 254 | 252 | 254 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 599 | 566 | 521 | 489 | 470 | 455 | 442 | 443 | 425 | 416 | 443 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 621 | 580 | 519 | 507 | 520 | 516 | 494 | 471 | 427 | 392 | 385 |
| Transportation equipment | 570 | 551 | 500 | 485 | 497 | 487 | 456 | 462 | 472 | 474 | 514 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 187 | 191 | 184 | 174 | 168 | 158 | 153 | 161 | 155 | 154 | 168 |
| Aircraft and parts | 328 | 306 | 268 | 267 | 288 | 289 | 262 | 258 | 275 | 279 | 304 |
| Instruments and related products | 169 | 157 | 141 | 136 | 133 | 130 | 124 | 121 | 115 | 109 | 109 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 90 | 88 | 84 | 80 | 76 | 76 | 74 | 76 | 75 | 73 | 72 |
| Nondurable goods | 2,068 | 2,005 | 1,937 | 1,889 | 1,853 | 1,820 | 1,791 | 1,777 | 1,733 | 1,697 | 1,681 |
| Food and kindred products | 602 | 598 | 598 | 593 | 585 | 585 | 584 | 578 | 568 | 551 | 542 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 12 |
| Textile mill products | 107 | 104 | 99 | 94 | 92 | 90 | 88 | 89 | 89 | 86 | 88 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 159 | 156 | 149 | 144 | 145 | 141 | 135 | 135 | 135 | 132 | 138 |
| Paper and allied products | 153 | 149 | 141 | 137 | 132 | 128 | 123 | 121 | 115 | 110 | 108 |
| Printing and publishing | 392 | 372 | 359 | 349 | 340 | 332 | 325 | 322 | 314 | 310 | 306 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 405 | 386 | 362 | 349 | 340 | 329 | 323 | 318 | 303 | 300 | 290 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 71 | 70 | 70 | 70 | 69 | 70 | 72 | 74 | 76 | 77 | 75 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 119 | 113 | 105 | 100 | 96 | 92 | 87 | 86 | 83 | 80 | 82 |
| Leather and leather products | 48 | 45 | 43 | 42 | 41 | 42 | 42 | 42 | 41 | 41 | 42 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 1,497 | 1,425 | 1,358 | 1,291 | 1,218 | 1,166 | 1,103 | 1,076 | 1,040 | 1,014 | 963 |
| Wholesale trade | 560 | 527 | 498 | 470 | 448 | 431 | 409 | 399 | 384 | 371 | 352 |
| Retail trade | 936 | 897 | 860 | 820 | 771 | 736 | 694 | 678 | 657 | 643 | 610 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[3] | 661 | 624 | 597 | 571 | 548 | 526 | 506 | 488 | 473 | 456 | 446 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[1] | 6,635 | 6,261 | 5,995 | 5,893 | 5,574 | 5,234 | 4,847 | 4,763 | 4,751 | 4,660 |
| Mining | 121 | 112 | 105 | 101 | 97 | 89 | 85 | 91 | 88 | 84 |
| Contract construction | 386 | 362 | 331 | 318 | 310 | 295 | 264 | 246 | 245 | 223 |
| Manufacturing | 3,807 | 3,594 | 3,497 | 3,494 | 3,273 | 3,025 | 2,718 | 2,651 | 2,672 | 2,555 |
| Durable goods | 2,165 | 1,993 | 1,935 | 1,956 | 1,799 | 1,609 | 1,389 | 1,367 | 1,401 | 1,357 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 54 | 50 | 50 | 61 | 49 | 18 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 |
| Lumber and wood products | 69 | 68 | 68 | 71 | 70 | 69 | 63 | 61 | 61 | 62 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 60 | 57 | 54 | 54 | 51 | 50 | 47 | 43 | 42 | 40 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 98 | 92 | 89 | 87 | 84 | 80 | 74 | 71 | 70 | 66 |
| Primary metal industries | 223 | 207 | 201 | 210 | 197 | 189 | 172 | 166 | 169 | 165 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 111 | 102 | 99 | 106 | 97 | 94 | 87 | 83 | 85 | 81 |
| Fabricated metal products | 239 | 224 | 219 | 219 | 205 | 195 | 170 | 167 | 170 | 163 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 413 | 380 | 372 | 371 | 353 | 327 | 281 | 282 | 298 | 288 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 348 | 317 | 306 | 304 | 276 | 248 | 221 | 224 | 230 | 225 |
| Transportation equipment | 489 | 441 | 423 | 426 | 372 | 302 | 236 | 234 | 243 | 236 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 173 | 173 | 164 | 178 | 159 | 152 | 139 | 138 | 149 | 142 |
| Aircraft and parts | 276 | 236 | 223 | 209 | 175 | 119 | 74 | 67 | 63 | 62 |
| Instruments and related products | 102 | 93 | 90 | 87 | 80 | 72 | 61 | 58 | 57 | 54 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 70 | 66 | 64 | 64 | 61 | 60 | 56 | 58 | 57 | 54 |
| Nondurable goods | 1,642 | 1,600 | 1,562 | 1,537 | 1,474 | 1,416 | 1,330 | 1,284 | 1,270 | 1,197 |
| Food and kindred products | 540 | 533 | 521 | 509 | 497 | 485 | 459 | 437 | 427 | 404 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 10 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| Textile mill products | 88 | 88 | 89 | 91 | 90 | 92 | 87 | 84 | 84 | 79 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 135 | 133 | 131 | 133 | 129 | 126 | 122 | 120 | 117 | 107 |
| Paper and allied products | 103 | 96 | 90 | 87 | 82 | 76 | 69 | 65 | 65 | 59 |
| Printing and publishing | 302 | 296 | 289 | 281 | 270 | 263 | 254 | 252 | 246 | 234 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 271 | 255 | 250 | 245 | 224 | 204 | 179 | 169 | 170 | 161 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 75 | 74 | 71 | 68 | 66 | 58 | 53 | 52 | 53 | 51 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 78 | 75 | 71 | 73 | 68 | 63 | 59 | 57 | 59 | 60 |
| Leather and leather products | 42 | 42 | 40 | 40 | 40 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 43 | 38 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 925 | 860 | 779 | 737 | 671 | 651 | 644 | 669 | 643 | 714 |
| Wholesale trade | 337 | 317 | 297 | 268 | 248 | 241 | 224 | 220 | 215 | 196 |
| Retail trade | 588 | 544 | 482 | 469 | 423 | 410 | 420 | 450 | 428 | 519 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[3] | 435 | 415 | 397 | 375 | 358 | 342 | 328 | 315 | 308 | 294 |

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[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[3] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

# Table C–5. Nonproduction Workers on Private Payrolls as Percent of Total Employment: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Industry | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[2] | 17.0 | 16.7 | 16.6 | 16.7 | 16.7 | 16.5 | 16.4 | 16.1 | 15.8 | 15.9 | 15.2 |
| Mining | 23.5 | 22.4 | 21.8 | 21.6 | 21.6 | 21.2 | 20.8 | 19.9 | 19.4 | 18.6 | 16.1 |
| Contract construction | 15.5 | 15.0 | 14.9 | 14.9 | 14.8 | 15.2 | 15.1 | 14.8 | 14.3 | 14.2 | 13.2 |
| Manufacturing | 26.4 | 25.6 | 25.6 | 26.0 | 26.1 | 25.9 | 26.0 | 25.1 | 24.4 | 24.8 | 23.2 |
| Durable goods | 26.9 | 25.8 | 25.9 | 26.5 | 26.9 | 26.8 | 27.0 | 25.7 | 25.0 | 25.5 | 23.4 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 48.6 | 52.3 | 57.6 | 57.4 | 56.5 | 54.8 | 54.9 | 53.6 | 52.1 | 48.1 | 42.8 |
| Lumber and wood products | 13.2 | 12.7 | 12.4 | 12.0 | 11.1 | 10.6 | 11.1 | 10.5 | 10.2 | 10.7 | 10.2 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 17.8 | 17.1 | 16.9 | 17.0 | 16.9 | 17.0 | 17.4 | 16.7 | 16.6 | 17.2 | 16.3 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 20.4 | 19.7 | 19.7 | 19.6 | 19.5 | 19.3 | 19.4 | 18.5 | 17.9 | 18.5 | 17.1 |
| Primary metal industries | 19.8 | 18.6 | 18.4 | 18.6 | 19.2 | 19.6 | 19.9 | 19.3 | 19.4 | 19.6 | 17.5 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 19.8 | 18.6 | 18.1 | 18.1 | 18.8 | 19.7 | 19.6 | 18.9 | 19.8 | 19.1 | 16.7 |
| Fabricated metal products | 22.8 | 22.2 | 22.5 | 23.1 | 23.4 | 23.4 | 23.9 | 23.0 | 22.6 | 23.4 | 21.8 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 30.4 | 29.6 | 30.0 | 30.4 | 30.7 | 30.5 | 31.2 | 30.0 | 29.3 | 30.5 | 27.9 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 32.4 | 30.6 | 31.3 | 32.8 | 33.5 | 32.9 | 33.5 | 32.1 | 30.6 | 31.4 | 28.6 |
| Transportation equipment | 29.6 | 28.8 | 28.7 | 30.2 | 30.9 | 31.5 | 31.5 | 29.4 | 28.9 | 29.7 | 26.9 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 23.1 | 22.2 | 21.8 | 23.1 | 22.7 | 22.8 | 24.2 | 22.2 | 22.4 | 25.4 | 21.8 |
| Aircraft and parts | 39.9 | 40.8 | 42.9 | 44.1 | 45.1 | 45.3 | 43.0 | 41.1 | 38.1 | 36.2 | 33.9 |
| Instruments and related products | 37.1 | 36.3 | 36.2 | 36.7 | 36.4 | 36.1 | 35.7 | 34.2 | 33.3 | 33.6 | 31.9 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 20.9 | 20.2 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.6 | 19.5 | 19.3 | 19.6 | 18.6 |
| Nondurable goods | 25.8 | 25.3 | 25.3 | 25.3 | 25.1 | 24.7 | 24.7 | 24.2 | 23.7 | 23.8 | 23.0 |
| Food and kindred products | 33.6 | 33.6 | 34.0 | 33.9 | 33.4 | 33.2 | 32.9 | 32.3 | 31.7 | 31.1 | 30.0 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 14.1 | 14.3 | 13.8 | 13.3 | 13.5 | 13.0 | 12.1 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.6 | 12.4 |
| Textile mill products | 11.2 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 10.0 | 9.9 | 9.6 | 9.4 | 9.4 | 9.0 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 11.4 | 11.2 | 11.0 | 11.1 | 11.3 | 11.1 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 11.0 | 11.3 | 11.4 |
| Paper and allied products | 22.4 | 22.3 | 22.1 | 21.9 | 21.4 | 20.9 | 20.5 | 20.1 | 19.6 | 19.5 | 18.9 |
| Printing and publishing | 36.8 | 36.4 | 36.7 | 36.7 | 36.5 | 35.8 | 35.4 | 35.3 | 35.3 | 35.5 | 35.2 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 40.9 | 40.3 | 39.9 | 39.7 | 39.3 | 38.8 | 39.0 | 38.4 | 37.5 | 37.8 | 35.8 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 37.4 | 37.6 | 38.3 | 37.9 | 36.5 | 35.7 | 35.6 | 34.9 | 35.2 | 34.4 | 32.3 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 23.2 | 22.2 | 22.3 | 22.9 | 23.0 | 22.5 | 23.2 | 22.7 | 22.3 | 23.3 | 22.0 |
| Leather and leather products | 13.6 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 11.0 | 11.4 | 11.3 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 9.7 | 9.4 | 9.3 | 9.4 | 8.8 |
| Wholesale trade | 15.8 | 15.3 | 15.0 | 14.7 | 14.4 | 14.1 | 13.7 | 13.3 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 12.2 |
| Retail trade | 9.2 | 9.2 | 9.1 | 9.1 | 8.9 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 8.1 | 8.0 | 8.1 | 7.6 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[3] | 20.5 | 20.1 | 19.7 | 19.3 | 19.0 | 18.8 | 18.5 | 18.3 | 18.2 | 18.1 | 18.0 |

| | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private[2] | 14.7 | 14.3 | 14.2 | 13.5 | 13.2 | 12.6 | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.1 | 12.1 |
| Mining | 14.7 | 14.1 | 13.3 | 11.7 | 10.8 | 9.6 | 9.4 | 9.8 | 8.9 | 8.8 |
| Contract construction | 12.9 | 12.9 | 12.7 | 12.1 | 11.8 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 11.4 | 11.3 | 11.3 |
| Manufacturing | 22.1 | 21.3 | 21.4 | 19.9 | 19.7 | 18.5 | 17.8 | 18.4 | 17.1 | 16.4 |
| Durable goods | 22.0 | 20.9 | 21.2 | 19.3 | 19.2 | 17.7 | 17.2 | 18.3 | 16.8 | 16.2 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 39.0 | 35.4 | 30.6 | 26.0 | 27.4 | 23.4 | 23.3 | 23.1 | 17.9 | 18.5 |
| Lumber and wood products | 9.4 | 9.2 | 9.6 | 9.2 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 7.8 | 8.2 | 7.5 | 7.3 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 16.0 | 15.7 | 15.8 | 14.6 | 14.3 | 14.0 | 12.6 | 13.6 | 12.1 | 11.9 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 16.2 | 15.6 | 16.1 | 15.0 | 14.9 | 13.6 | 13.5 | 13.8 | 12.8 | 12.3 |
| Primary metal industries | 16.5 | 15.6 | 16.5 | 15.2 | 15.4 | 13.9 | 13.8 | 14.6 | 13.1 | 12.9 |
| Blast furnace and basic steel products | 15.7 | 14.4 | 15.3 | 14.6 | 15.0 | 13.2 | 12.9 | 13.6 | 12.5 | 12.3 |
| Fabricated metal products | 21.0 | 20.0 | 20.5 | 18.9 | 19.3 | 18.1 | 17.3 | 19.0 | 17.4 | 16.5 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 26.3 | 26.2 | 26.2 | 23.9 | 23.3 | 22.4 | 23.2 | 23.9 | 21.7 | 20.9 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 26.3 | 25.5 | 25.7 | 22.8 | 23.3 | 22.3 | 22.3 | 26.0 | 23.2 | 21.7 |
| Transportation equipment | 26.4 | 23.8 | 24.1 | 21.6 | 21.8 | 19.9 | 18.7 | 19.3 | 19.1 | 18.5 |
| Motor vehicles and equipment | 21.8 | 19.4 | 21.4 | 19.4 | 20.4 | 18.2 | 17.0 | 18.4 | 19.1 | 18.5 |
| Aircraft and parts | 33.0 | 31.0 | 28.5 | 26.3 | 26.1 | 25.4 | 26.1 | 25.4 | 26.5 | 25.9 |
| Instruments and related products | 30.2 | 28.8 | 28.0 | 25.8 | 25.6 | 24.5 | 24.4 | 24.3 | 21.8 | 20.2 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 17.4 | 16.7 | 16.4 | 15.2 | 15.5 | 14.8 | 14.0 | 15.1 | 13.5 | 12.8 |
| Nondurable goods | 22.2 | 21.8 | 21.7 | 20.7 | 20.2 | 19.4 | 18.6 | 18.5 | 17.5 | 16.7 |
| Food and kindred products | 29.3 | 29.2 | 28.7 | 27.7 | 27.2 | 26.6 | 25.6 | 24.6 | 23.7 | 22.5 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 10.0 | 8.7 | 7.8 | 7.7 | 8.5 | 7.7 | 7.8 | 7.3 | 7.0 | 6.8 |
| Textile mill products | 8.5 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 7.9 | 7.7 | 7.4 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 6.3 | 6.1 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 11.0 | 10.9 | 11.1 | 10.7 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 9.8 | 9.3 |
| Paper and allied products | 18.1 | 17.5 | 16.9 | 16.4 | 16.3 | 14.9 | 14.2 | 14.3 | 13.7 | 12.7 |
| Printing and publishing | 35.0 | 35.4 | 35.5 | 35.0 | 34.6 | 34.2 | 34.0 | 34.1 | 33.2 | 32.5 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 34.0 | 33.0 | 33.2 | 31.9 | 30.7 | 28.9 | 28.0 | 27.3 | 26.0 | 24.8 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 31.8 | 31.2 | 29.8 | 28.2 | 28.1 | 25.1 | 24.3 | 23.5 | 23.2 | 23.1 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 21.1 | 20.7 | 21.6 | 20.2 | 20.1 | 18.9 | 19.0 | 20.1 | 18.9 | 18.6 |
| Leather and leather products | 11.0 | 10.9 | 10.7 | 10.3 | 10.4 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 9.2 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 8.5 | 8.2 | 7.6 | 7.2 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 6.9 | 8.0 |
| Wholesale trade | 11.7 | 11.3 | 10.8 | 9.8 | 9.2 | 9.2 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.6 | 8.3 |
| Retail trade | 7.4 | 7.0 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 7.9 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate[3] | 17.9 | 17.8 | 17.8 | 17.5 | 17.3 | 17.2 | 17.1 | 17.0 | 16.8 | 16.8 |

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[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[3] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

## Table C–6. Gross Average Hourly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Industry | 1967 [2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | $2.67 | $2.55 | $2.45 | $2.36 | $2.28 | $2.22 | $2.14 | $2.09 | $2.02 | $1.95 | $1.89 |
| Mining | 3.20 | 3.06 | 2.92 | 2.81 | 2.75 | 2.70 | 2.64 | 2.61 | 2.56 | 2.47 | 2.46 |
| Contract construction | 4.09 | 3.88 | 3.70 | 3.55 | 3.41 | 3.31 | 3.20 | 3.08 | 2.93 | 2.82 | 2.71 |
| Manufacturing | 2.83 | 2.72 | 2.61 | 2.53 | 2.46 | 2.39 | 2.32 | 2.26 | 2.19 | 2.11 | 2.05 |
| Durable goods | 3.00 | 2.90 | 2.79 | 2.71 | 2.63 | 2.56 | 2.49 | 2.43 | 2.36 | 2.26 | 2.19 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 3.24 | 3.19 | 3.13 | 3.03 | 2.93 | 2.83 | 2.75 | 2.65 | 2.57 | 2.51 | 2.36 |
| Lumber and wood products | 2.38 | 2.25 | 2.17 | 2.11 | 2.04 | 1.99 | 1.95 | 1.89 | 1.87 | 1.79 | 1.74 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 2.32 | 2.21 | 2.12 | 2.05 | 2.00 | 1.95 | 1.91 | 1.88 | 1.83 | 1.78 | 1.75 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 2.83 | 2.72 | 2.62 | 2.53 | 2.47 | 2.41 | 2.34 | 2.28 | 2.22 | 2.12 | 2.05 |
| Primary metal industries | 3.34 | 3.28 | 3.18 | 3.11 | 3.04 | 2.98 | 2.90 | 2.81 | 2.77 | 2.64 | 2.50 |
| Fabricated metal products | 2.97 | 2.87 | 2.76 | 2.68 | 2.61 | 2.55 | 2.49 | 2.43 | 2.35 | 2.25 | 2.16 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 3.19 | 3.08 | 2.96 | 2.87 | 2.78 | 2.71 | 2.62 | 2.55 | 2.48 | 2.37 | 2.29 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 2.77 | 2.65 | 2.58 | 2.51 | 2.46 | 2.40 | 2.35 | 2.28 | 2.20 | 2.12 | 2.04 |
| Transportation equipment | 3.43 | 3.33 | 3.21 | 3.09 | 3.01 | 2.91 | 2.80 | 2.74 | 2.64 | 2.51 | 2.39 |
| Instruments and related products | 2.84 | 2.73 | 2.62 | 2.54 | 2.49 | 2.44 | 2.38 | 2.31 | 2.24 | 2.15 | 2.06 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 2.34 | 2.22 | 2.14 | 2.08 | 2.03 | 1.98 | 1.92 | 1.89 | 1.84 | 1.79 | 1.75 |
| Nondurable goods | 2.57 | 2.45 | 2.36 | 2.29 | 2.2[illegible] | 2.17 | 2.11 | 2.05 | 1.98 | 1.91 | 1.85 |
| Food and kindred products | 2.64 | 2.52 | 2.43 | 2.37 | 2.30 | 2.24 | 2.17 | 2.11 | 2.02 | 1.94 | 1.85 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 2.28 | 2.19 | 2.09 | 1.95 | 1.91 | 1.85 | 1.78 | 1.70 | 1.64 | 1.59 | 1.53 |
| Textile mill products | 2.06 | 1.96 | 1.87 | 1.79 | 1.71 | 1.68 | 1.63 | 1.61 | 1.56 | 1.49 | 1.49 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 2.03 | 1.89 | 1.83 | 1.79 | 1.73 | 1.69 | 1.64 | 1.59 | 1.56 | 1.54 | 1.51 |
| Paper and allied products | 2.87 | 2.75 | 2.65 | 2.56 | 2.48 | 2.40 | 2.34 | 2.26 | 2.18 | 2.10 | 2.02 |
| Printing and publishing | 3.28 | 3.16 | 3.06 | 2.97 | 2.89 | 2.82 | 2.75 | 2.68 | 2.59 | 2.49 | 2.40 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 3.10 | 2.98 | 2.89 | 2.80 | 2.72 | 2.65 | 2.58 | 2.50 | 2.40 | 2.29 | 2.20 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 3.58 | 3.41 | 3.28 | 3.20 | 3.16 | 3.05 | 3.01 | 2.89 | 2.85 | 2.73 | 2.66 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 2.74 | 2.67 | 2.61 | 2.54 | 2.47 | 2.44 | 2.38 | 2.32 | 2.27 | 2.19 | 2.11 |
| Leather and leather products | 2.07 | 1.94 | 1.88 | 1.82 | 1.76 | 1.72 | 1.68 | 1.64 | 1.59 | 1.56 | 1.52 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 2.25 | 2.13 | 2.03 | 1.96 | 1.89 | 1.83 | 1.76 | 1.71 | 1.66 | 1.60 | 1.54 |
| Wholesale trade | 2.88 | 2.73 | 2.61 | 2.52 | 2.45 | 2.37 | 2.31 | 2.24 | 2.18 | 2.09 | 2.02 |
| Retail trade | 2.01 | 1.91 | 1.82 | 1.75 | 1.68 | 1.63 | 1.56 | 1.52 | 1.47 | 1.42 | 1.37 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 2.61 | 2.48 | 2.39 | 2.30 | 2.25 | 2.17 | 2.09 | 2.02 | 1.95 | 1.89 | 1.84 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | $1.80 | $1.71 | $1.65 | $1.61 | $1.52 | $1.45 | $1.34 | $1.28 | $1.22 | $1.13 |
| Mining | 2.33 | 2.20 | 2.14 | 2.14 | 2.01 | 1.93 | 1.77 | 1.72 | 1.66 | 1.47 |
| Contract construction | 2.57 | 2.45 | 2.39 | 2.28 | 2.13 | 2.02 | 1.86 | 1.79 | 1.71 | 1.54 |
| Manufacturing | 1.95 | 1.86 | 1.78 | 1.74 | 1.65 | 1.56 | 1.44 | 1.38 | 1.33 | 1.22 |
| Durable goods | 2.08 | 1.99 | 1.90 | 1.86 | 1.75 | 1.65 | 1.52 | 1.45 | 1.40 | 1.28 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 2.21 | 2.07 | 2.00 | 1.92 | 1.82 | 1.71 | 1.56 | 1.48 | 1.39 | 1.31 |
| Lumber and wood products | 1.69 | 1.62 | 1.57 | 1.55 | 1.49 | 1.41 | 1.30 | 1.22 | 1.19 | 1.09 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 1.69 | 1.62 | 1.57 | 1.54 | 1.47 | 1.39 | 1.28 | 1.23 | 1.19 | 1.10 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 1.96 | 1.86 | 1.77 | 1.72 | 1.61 | 1.54 | 1.44 | 1.37 | 1.31 | 1.19 |
| Primary metal industries | 2.36 | 2.24 | 2.10 | 2.06 | 1.90 | 1.81 | 1.65 | 1.59 | 1.52 | 1.39 |
| Fabricated metal products | 2.05 | 1.96 | 1.88 | 1.83 | 1.72 | 1.64 | 1.52 | 1.45 | 1.38 | 1.26 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 2.20 | 2.08 | 2.00 | 1.95 | 1.85 | 1.75 | 1.60 | 1.52 | 1.46 | 1.34 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 1.95 | 1.84 | 1.79 | 1.74 | 1.65 | 1.56 | 1.44 | 1.41 | 1.36 | 1.25 |
| Transportation equipment | 2.29 | 2.21 | 2.11 | 2.05 | 1.95 | 1.84 | 1.72 | 1.64 | 1.57 | 1.44 |
| Instruments and related products | 1.97 | 1.87 | 1.80 | 1.75 | 1.69 | 1.59 | 1.45 | 1.37 | 1.31 | 1.20 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 1.69 | 1.61 | 1.56 | 1.52 | 1.45 | 1.36 | 1.28 | 1.22 | 1.18 | 1.11 |
| Nondurable goods | 1.77 | 1.67 | 1.62 | 1.58 | 1.51 | 1.44 | 1.35 | 1.30 | 1.25 | 1.14 |
| Food and kindred products | 1.76 | 1.66 | 1.59 | 1.53 | 1.44 | 1.35 | 1.26 | 1.21 | 1.15 | 1.06 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 1.45 | 1.34 | 1.30 | 1.25 | 1.18 | 1.14 | 1.08 | 1.00 | .96 | .90 |
| Textile mill products | 1.44 | 1.38 | 1.36 | 1.36 | 1.34 | 1.32 | 1.23 | 1.18 | 1.16 | 1.04 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 1.47 | 1.37 | 1.37 | 1.35 | 1.32 | 1.31 | 1.24 | 1.21 | 1.22 | 1.16 |
| Paper and allied products | 1.92 | 1.81 | 1.73 | 1.67 | 1.59 | 1.51 | 1.40 | 1.33 | 1.28 | 1.15 |
| Printing and publishing | 2.33 | 2.26 | 2.18 | 2.11 | 2.02 | 1.91 | 1.83 | 1.77 | 1.65 | 1.48 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 2.09 | 1.97 | 1.89 | 1.81 | 1.69 | 1.62 | 1.50 | 1.42 | 1.34 | 1.22 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 2.54 | 2.37 | 2.29 | 2.22 | 2.10 | 1.99 | 1.84 | 1.80 | 1.71 | 1.50 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 2.03 | 1.96 | 1.84 | 1.80 | 1.71 | 1.58 | 1.47 | 1.41 | 1.36 | 1.30 |
| Leather and leather products | 1.48 | 1.39 | 1.36 | 1.35 | 1.30 | 1.25 | 1.17 | 1.12 | 1.10 | 1.04 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 1.47 | 1.40 | 1.35 | 1.30 | 1.23 | 1.18 | 1.10 | 1.06 | 1.01 | .94 |
| Wholesale trade | 1.94 | 1.83 | 1.76 | 1.70 | 1.61 | 1.52 | 1.43 | 1.36 | 1.31 | 1.22 |
| Retail trade | 1.30 | 1.25 | 1.20 | 1.16 | 1.09 | 1.06 | .98 | .95 | .90 | .84 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 1.78 | 1.70 | 1.65 | 1.58 | 1.51 | 1.45 | 1.34 | 1.26 | 1.20 | 1.14 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

## Table C–7. Gross Average Weekly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Industry | 1967 [2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | $101.99 | $98.69 | $95.06 | $91.33 | $88.46 | $85.91 | $82.60 | $80.67 | $78.78 | $75.08 | $73.33 |
| Mining | 136.32 | 130.66 | 123.52 | 117.74 | 114.40 | 110.43 | 106.92 | 105.44 | 103.68 | 96.08 | 98.65 |
| Contract construction | 153.78 | 145.89 | 138.38 | 132.06 | 127.19 | 122.47 | 118.08 | 113.04 | 108.41 | 103.78 | 100.27 |
| Manufacturing | 114.90 | 112.34 | 107.53 | 102.97 | 99.63 | 96.56 | 92.34 | 89.72 | 88.26 | 82.71 | 81.59 |
| Durable goods | 123.60 | 122.09 | 117.18 | 112.19 | 108.09 | 104.70 | 100.35 | 97.44 | 96.05 | 89.27 | 88.26 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 135.76 | 134.94 | 131.15 | 122.72 | 120.42 | 116.60 | 113.03 | 108.39 | 106.14 | 102.41 | 95.58 |
| Lumber and wood products | 96.15 | 91.80 | 88.75 | 85.24 | 81.80 | 79.20 | 76.83 | 73.71 | 74.24 | 69.09 | 66.64 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 93.73 | 91.72 | 87.19 | 84.46 | 81.80 | 79.37 | 76.40 | 75.20 | 74.48 | 69.95 | 69.83 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 117.73 | 114.24 | 110.04 | 105.50 | 102.26 | 98.57 | 95.24 | 92.57 | 91.46 | 84.80 | 82.82 |
| Primary metal industries | 136.94 | 138.09 | 133.88 | 130.00 | 124.64 | 119.80 | 114.84 | 109.59 | 112.19 | 101.11 | 99.00 |
| Fabricated metal products | 123.26 | 121.69 | 116.20 | 111.76 | 108.05 | 104.81 | 100.85 | 98.42 | 96.12 | 89.78 | 88.34 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 135.89 | 134.90 | 127.58 | 121.69 | 116.20 | 113.01 | 107.42 | 104.55 | 102.92 | 94.33 | 94.12 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 111.35 | 109.18 | 105.78 | 101.66 | 99.14 | 97.44 | 94.47 | 90.74 | 89.10 | 83.95 | 81.80 |
| Transportation equipment | 141.66 | 141.86 | 137.71 | 130.09 | 126.72 | 122.22 | 113.40 | 111.52 | 107.45 | 100.40 | 97.51 |
| Instruments and related products | 117.01 | 114.93 | 108.47 | 103.63 | 101.59 | 99.80 | 96.87 | 93.32 | 91.39 | 85.57 | 83.22 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 92.20 | 88.80 | 85.39 | 82.37 | 80.39 | 78.61 | 75.84 | 74.28 | 73.42 | 70.17 | 69.48 |
| Nondurable goods | 102.03 | 98.49 | 94.64 | 90.91 | 87.91 | 85.93 | 82.92 | 80.36 | 78.61 | 74.11 | 72.52 |
| Food and kindred products | 107.98 | 103.32 | 99.87 | 97.17 | 94.30 | 91.84 | 83.75 | 86.09 | 82.82 | 79.15 | 75.48 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 87.55 | 84.97 | 79.21 | 75.66 | 73.92 | 71.41 | 69.42 | 64.94 | 64.12 | 62.17 | 58.75 |
| Textile mill products | 84.25 | 82.12 | 78.17 | 73.39 | 69.43 | 68.21 | 65.04 | 63.60 | 63.02 | 57.51 | 57.96 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 73.08 | 68.80 | 66.61 | 64.26 | 62.45 | 61.18 | 58.06 | 56.29 | 56.63 | 54.05 | 53.91 |
| Paper and allied products | 122.84 | 119.35 | 114.22 | 109.57 | 105.90 | 102.00 | 99.45 | 95.15 | 93.30 | 87.99 | 85.45 |
| Printing and publishing | 125.95 | 122.61 | 118.12 | 114.35 | 110.69 | 108.01 | 105.05 | 102.91 | 99.46 | 94.62 | 92.64 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 128.96 | 125.16 | 121.09 | 116.48 | 112.88 | 110.24 | 106.81 | 103.25 | 99.36 | 93.20 | 89.98 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 152.87 | 144.58 | 138.42 | 133.76 | 131.77 | 126.88 | 124.31 | 118.78 | 117.42 | 111.66 | 108.53 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 113.44 | 112.14 | 109.62 | 104.90 | 100.78 | 100.04 | 96.15 | 92.57 | 93.75 | 85.85 | 85.67 |
| Leather and leather products | 79.07 | 74.88 | 71.82 | 68.98 | 66.00 | 64.67 | 62.83 | 60.52 | 60.10 | 57.25 | 56.85 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 82.13 | 79.02 | 76.53 | 74.28 | 72.01 | 69.91 | 67.41 | 66.01 | 64.41 | 61.76 | 59.60 |
| Wholesale trade | 116.35 | 111.38 | 106.49 | 102.31 | 99.47 | 96.22 | 93.56 | 90.72 | 88.51 | 84.02 | 81.41 |
| Retail trade | 70.95 | 68.57 | 66.61 | 64.75 | 62.66 | 60.96 | 58.66 | 57.76 | 56.15 | 54.10 | 52.20 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 96.83 | 92.50 | 88.91 | 85.79 | 84.38 | 80.94 | 77.12 | 75.14 | 72.74 | 70.12 | 67.53 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | $70.74 | $67.72 | $64.52 | $63.76 | $60.65 | $57.86 | $53.13 | $50.24 | $49.00 | $45.58 |
| Mining | 95.06 | 89.54 | 82.60 | 83.03 | 77.59 | 74.11 | 67.16 | 62.33 | 65.56 | 59.94 |
| Contract construction | 96.38 | 90.90 | 88.91 | 86.41 | 82.86 | 76.96 | 69.68 | 67.56 | 65.27 | 58.87 |
| Manufacturing | 78.78 | 75.70 | 70.49 | 70.47 | 67.16 | 63.34 | 58.32 | 53.88 | 53.12 | 49.17 |
| Durable goods | 85.28 | 82.19 | 76.19 | 76.63 | 72.63 | 68.48 | 62.43 | 57.25 | 56.36 | 51.76 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 91.72 | 83.63 | 79.80 | 78.14 | 77.35 | 74.04 | 65.06 | 58.80 | 57.28 | 53.81 |
| Lumber and wood products | 65.57 | 63.99 | 61.39 | 60.76 | 59.15 | 55.41 | 51.27 | 48.02 | 47.60 | 43.93 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 68.78 | 67.07 | 62.80 | 62.99 | 60.86 | 57.13 | 53.59 | 49.36 | 48.87 | 45.53 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 80.56 | 77.00 | 71.69 | 70.18 | 66.17 | 63.76 | 59.10 | 54.31 | 53.19 | 48.95 |
| Primary metal industries | 96.76 | 92.51 | 81.48 | 84.46 | 77.52 | 75.30 | 67.36 | 60.94 | 61.18 | 55.38 |
| Fabricated metal products | 84.67 | 81.73 | 76.70 | 76.49 | 71.72 | 68.55 | 63.04 | 57.45 | 56.33 | 51.74 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 93.06 | 87.36 | 81.40 | 82.68 | 79.55 | 76.13 | 67.08 | 60.31 | 60.38 | 55.78 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 79.56 | 74.89 | 71.24 | 70.99 | 67.98 | 64.27 | 59.35 | 55.77 | 54.54 | 50.25 |
| Transportation equipment | 94.81 | 93.48 | 86.30 | 85.28 | 81.51 | 75.81 | 71.29 | 65.10 | 61.74 | 57.01 |
| Instruments and related products | 80.77 | 76.48 | 72.00 | 72.63 | 70.98 | 67.10 | 59.80 | 54.39 | 52.58 | 48.38 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 67.60 | 64.88 | 61.78 | 61.56 | 59.02 | 55.08 | 52.02 | 48.23 | 48.07 | 44.79 |
| Nondurable goods | 70.09 | 66.63 | 63.18 | 62.57 | 59.95 | 56.88 | 43.48 | 50.38 | 49.50 | 46.03 |
| Food and kindred products | 72.69 | 68.89 | 65.67 | 63.50 | 60.34 | 56.84 | 52.88 | 50.53 | 48.89 | 45.92 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 56.26 | 51.86 | 48.88 | 47.63 | 45.31 | 43.89 | 41.00 | 37.26 | 36.61 | 35.20 |
| Textile mill products | 57.17 | 55.34 | 52.09 | 53.18 | 52.39 | 51.22 | 48.63 | 44.41 | 45.28 | 40.99 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 52.92 | 49.73 | 48.36 | 48.74 | 47.92 | 46.64 | 44.64 | 42.80 | 43.68 | 41.80 |
| Paper and allied products | 82.18 | 78.01 | 73.18 | 71.81 | 68.05 | 65.08 | 60.53 | 55.42 | 54.74 | 49.69 |
| Printing and publishing | 90.64 | 87.91 | 83.93 | 82.29 | 78.58 | 74.30 | 71.26 | 68.64 | 65.17 | 59.34 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 85.90 | 80.97 | 77.11 | 74.21 | 69.12 | 66.91 | 61.68 | 57.67 | 55.33 | 50.31 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 104.14 | 96.93 | 93.20 | 90.35 | 85.05 | 81.19 | 75.11 | 72.46 | 69.30 | 60.98 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 82.01 | 81.93 | 73.23 | 72.72 | 69.77 | 64.31 | 60.35 | 54.14 | 53.35 | 51.87 |
| Leather and leather products | 55.65 | 52.68 | 50.18 | 50.90 | 49.92 | 46.13 | 43.99 | 41.07 | 41.11 | 40.07 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 57.48 | 55.16 | 53.33 | 51.35 | 49.20 | 47.79 | 44.55 | 42.93 | 40.80 | 38.07 |
| Wholesale trade | 78.57 | 74.48 | 71.28 | 69.02 | 65.53 | 62.02 | 58.08 | 55.49 | 53.63 | 50.14 |
| Retail trade | 50.18 | 48.75 | 47.04 | 45.36 | 43.38 | 42.82 | 39.71 | 38.42 | 36.22 | 33.77 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 65.68 | 63.92 | 62.04 | 59.57 | 57.08 | 54.67 | 50.52 | 47.63 | 45.48 | 43.21 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

# Table C–8. Gross Average Weekly Hours of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Industry | 1967 [2] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | 38.2 | 38.7 | 38.8 | 38.7 | 38.8 | 38.7 | 38.6 | 38.6 | 39.0 | 38.5 | 38.8 |
| Mining | 42.6 | 42.7 | 42.3 | 41.9 | 41.6 | 40.9 | 40.5 | 40.4 | 40.5 | 38.9 | 40.1 |
| Contract construction | 37.6 | 37.6 | 37.4 | 37.2 | 37.3 | 37.0 | 36.9 | 36.7 | 37.0 | 36.8 | 37.0 |
| Manufacturing | 40.6 | 41.3 | 41.2 | 40.7 | 40.5 | 40.4 | 39.8 | 39.7 | 40.3 | 39.2 | 39.8 |
| Durable goods | 41.2 | 42.1 | 42.0 | 41.4 | 41.1 | 40.9 | 40.3 | 40.1 | 40.7 | 39.5 | 40.3 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 41.9 | 42.3 | 41.9 | 40.5 | 41.1 | 41.2 | 41.1 | 40.9 | 41.3 | 40.8 | 40.5 |
| Lumber and wood products | 40.4 | 40.8 | 40.9 | 40.4 | 40.1 | 39.8 | 39.4 | 39.0 | 39.7 | 38.6 | 38.3 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 40.4 | 41.5 | 41.6 | 41.2 | 40.9 | 40.7 | 40.0 | 40.0 | 40.7 | 39.3 | 39.9 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 41.6 | 42.0 | 42.0 | 41.7 | 41.4 | 40.9 | 40.7 | 40.6 | 41.2 | 40.0 | 40.4 |
| Primary metal industries | 41.0 | 42.1 | 42.1 | 41.8 | 41.0 | 40.2 | 39.6 | 39.0 | 40.5 | 38.3 | 39.6 |
| Fabricated metal products | 41.5 | 42.4 | 42.1 | 41.7 | 41.4 | 41.1 | 40.5 | 40.5 | 40.9 | 39.9 | 40.9 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 42.6 | 43.8 | 43.1 | 42.4 | 41.8 | 41.7 | 41.0 | 41.0 | 41.5 | 39.8 | 41.1 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 40.2 | 41.2 | 41.0 | 40.5 | 40.3 | 40.6 | 40.2 | 39.8 | 40.5 | 39.6 | 40.1 |
| Transportation equipment | 41.3 | 42.6 | 42.9 | 42.1 | 42.1 | 42.0 | 40.5 | 40.7 | 40.7 | 40.0 | 40.8 |
| Instruments and related products | 41.2 | 42.1 | 41.4 | 40.8 | 40.8 | 40.9 | 40.7 | 40.4 | 40.8 | 39.8 | 40.4 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 39.4 | 40.0 | 39.9 | 39.6 | 39.6 | 39.7 | 39.5 | 39.3 | 39.9 | 39.2 | 39.7 |
| Nondurable goods | 39.7 | 40.2 | 40.1 | 39.7 | 39.6 | 39.6 | 39.3 | 39.2 | 39.7 | 38.8 | 39.2 |
| Food and kindred products | 40.9 | 41.2 | 41.1 | 41.0 | 41.0 | 41.0 | 40.9 | 40.8 | 41.0 | 40.8 | 40.8 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 38.4 | 38.8 | 37.9 | 38.8 | 38.7 | 38.6 | 39.0 | 38.2 | 39.1 | 39.1 | 38.4 |
| Textile mill products | 40.9 | 41.9 | 41.8 | 41.0 | 40.6 | 40.6 | 39.9 | 39.5 | 40.4 | 38.6 | 38.9 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 36.0 | 36.4 | 36.4 | 35.9 | 36.1 | 36.2 | 35.4 | 35.4 | 36.3 | 35.1 | 35.7 |
| Paper and allied products | 42.8 | 43.4 | 43.1 | 42.8 | 42.7 | 42.5 | 42.5 | 42.1 | 42.8 | 41.9 | 42.3 |
| Printing and publishing | 38.4 | 38.8 | 38.6 | 38.5 | 38.3 | 38.3 | 38.2 | 38.4 | 38.4 | 38.0 | 38.6 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 41.6 | 42.0 | 41.9 | 41.6 | 41.5 | 41.6 | 41.4 | 41.3 | 41.4 | 40.7 | 40.9 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 42.7 | 42.4 | 42.2 | 41.8 | 41.7 | 41.6 | 41.3 | 41.1 | 41.2 | 40.9 | 40.8 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 41.4 | 42.0 | 42.0 | 41.3 | 40.8 | 41.0 | 40.4 | 39.9 | 41.3 | 39.2 | 40.6 |
| Leather and leather products | 38.2 | 38.6 | 38.2 | 37.9 | 37.5 | 37.6 | 37.4 | 36.9 | 37.8 | 36.7 | 37.4 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 36.5 | 37.1 | 37.7 | 37.9 | 38.1 | 38.2 | 38.3 | 38.6 | 38.8 | 38.6 | 38.7 |
| Wholesale trade | 40.4 | 40.8 | 40.8 | 40.6 | 40.6 | 40.6 | 40.5 | 40.5 | 40.6 | 40.2 | 40.3 |
| Retail trade | 35.3 | 35.9 | 36.6 | 37.0 | 37.3 | 37.4 | 37.6 | 38.0 | 38.2 | 38.1 | 38.1 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 37.1 | 37.3 | 37.2 | 37.3 | 37.5 | 37.3 | 36.9 | 37.2 | 37.3 | 37.1 | 36.7 |

| Industry | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total private [3] | 39.3 | 39.6 | 39.1 | 39.6 | 39.9 | 39.9 | 39.8 | 39.4 | 40.0 | 40.3 |
| Mining | 40.8 | 40.7 | 38.6 | 38.8 | 38.6 | 38.4 | 37.9 | 36.3 | 39.4 | 40.8 |
| Contract construction | 37.5 | 37.1 | 37.2 | 37.9 | 38.9 | 38.1 | 37.4 | 37.7 | 38.1 | 38.2 |
| Manufacturing | 40.4 | 40.7 | 39.6 | 40.5 | 40.7 | 40.6 | 40.5 | 39.1 | 40.0 | 40.4 |
| Durable goods | 41.0 | 41.3 | 40.1 | 41.2 | 41.5 | 41.5 | 41.1 | 39.4 | 40.4 | 40.5 |
| Ordnance and accessories | 41.5 | 40.4 | 39.9 | 40.7 | 42.5 | 43.3 | 41.6 | 39.7 | 41.3 | 41.2 |
| Lumber and wood products | 38.8 | 39.5 | 39.1 | 39.2 | 39.7 | 39.3 | 39.5 | 39.2 | 40.0 | 40.3 |
| Furniture and fixtures | 40.7 | 41.4 | 40.0 | 40.9 | 41.4 | 41.1 | 41.8 | 40.0 | 41.0 | 41.5 |
| Stone, clay, and glass products | 41.1 | 41.4 | 40.5 | 40.8 | 41.1 | 41.4 | 41.1 | 39.7 | 40.7 | 41.0 |
| Primary metal industries | 41.0 | 41.3 | 38.8 | 41.0 | 40.8 | 41.6 | 40.9 | 38.4 | 40.2 | 39.9 |
| Fabricated metal products | 41.3 | 41.7 | 40.8 | 41.8 | 41.7 | 41.8 | 41.5 | 39.7 | 40.7 | 40.9 |
| Machinery, except electrical | 42.3 | 42.0 | 40.7 | 42.4 | 43.0 | 43.5 | 41.9 | 39.6 | 41.3 | 41.5 |
| Electrical equipment and supplies | 40.8 | 40.7 | 39.8 | 40.8 | 41.2 | 41.2 | 41.1 | 39.5 | 40.1 | 40.3 |
| Transportation equipment | 41.4 | 42.3 | 40.9 | 41.6 | 41.8 | 41.2 | 41.4 | 39.6 | 39.4 | 39.7 |
| Instruments and related products | 41.0 | 40.9 | 40.0 | 41.5 | 42.0 | 42.2 | 41.3 | 39.7 | 40.2 | 40.4 |
| Miscellaneous manufacturing industries | 40.0 | 40.3 | 39.6 | 40.5 | 40.7 | 40.5 | 40.8 | 39.6 | 40.6 | 40.5 |
| Nondurable goods | 39.6 | 39.9 | 39.0 | 39.6 | 39.7 | 39.5 | 39.7 | 38.9 | 39.6 | 40.2 |
| Food and kindred products | 41.3 | 41.5 | 41.3 | 41.5 | 41.9 | 42.1 | 41.9 | 41.9 | 42.4 | 43.2 |
| Tobacco manufactures | 38.8 | 38.7 | 37.6 | 38.1 | 38.4 | 38.5 | 38.1 | 37.3 | 38.3 | 38.9 |
| Textile mill products | 39.7 | 40.1 | 38.3 | 39.1 | 39.1 | 38.8 | 39.6 | 37.6 | 39.2 | 39.6 |
| Apparel and other textile products | 36.0 | 36.3 | 35.3 | 36.1 | 36.3 | 35.6 | 36.0 | 35.4 | 35.8 | 36.0 |
| Paper and allied products | 42.8 | 43.1 | 42.3 | 43.0 | 42.8 | 43.1 | 43.3 | 41.7 | 42.8 | 43.1 |
| Printing and publishing | 38.9 | 38.9 | 38.5 | 39.0 | 38.9 | 38.9 | 38.9 | 38.8 | 39.4 | 40.2 |
| Chemicals and allied products | 41.1 | 41.1 | 40.8 | 41.0 | 40.9 | 41.3 | 41.2 | 40.7 | 41.2 | 41.2 |
| Petroleum and coal products | 41.0 | 40.9 | 40.7 | 40.7 | 40.5 | 40.8 | 40.8 | 40.3 | 40.6 | 40.6 |
| Rubber and plastics products, nec | 40.4 | 41.8 | 39.8 | 40.4 | 40.8 | 40.7 | 41.0 | 38.4 | 39.2 | 39.9 |
| Leather and leather products | 37.6 | 37.9 | 36.9 | 37.7 | 38.4 | 36.9 | 37.6 | 36.6 | 37.2 | 38.6 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 39.1 | 39.4 | 39.5 | 39.5 | 40.0 | 40.5 | 40.5 | 40.5 | 40.4 | 40.5 |
| Wholesale trade | 40.5 | 40.7 | 40.5 | 40.6 | 40.7 | 40.8 | 40.7 | 40.8 | 41.0 | 41.1 |
| Retail trade | 38.6 | 39.0 | 39.2 | 39.1 | 39.8 | 40.4 | 40.4 | 40.4 | 40.2 | 40.3 |
| Finance, insurance, real estate [4] | 36.9 | 37.6 | 37.6 | 37.7 | 37.8 | 37.7 | 37.7 | 37.8 | 37.9 | 37.9 |

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

# Table C–9. Selected Payroll Series on Hours, Earnings, and Labor Turnover: Annual Averages, 1947–67

| Year | Average weekly overtime hours | | | Average hourly earnings excluding overtime [1] | | | Aggregate weekly man-hours index (1957–59=100) | | | Aggregate weekly payroll index (1957–59=100) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Manufacturing | Durable goods | Nondurable goods | Manufacturing | Durable goods | Nondurable goods | Mining | Contract construction | Manufacturing | Mining | Contract construction | Manufacturing |
| 1947 | (2) | (2) | (2) | $1.18 | $1.24 | $1.11 | 141.1 | 73.2 | 104.7 | 83.1 | 40.0 | 60.3 |
| 1948 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.29 | 1.35 | 1.21 | 141.8 | 79.9 | 103.2 | 94.6 | 48.5 | 64.8 |
| 1949 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.34 | 1.42 | 1.26 | 120.8 | 78.8 | 92.1 | 83.2 | 50.0 | 60.0 |
| 1950 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.39 | 1.46 | 1.31 | 122.8 | 84.2 | 101.2 | 87.3 | 55.5 | 68.9 |
| 1951 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.51 | 1.59 | 1.40 | 127.9 | 95.7 | 108.5 | 99.0 | 68.6 | 80.2 |
| 1952 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.59 | 1.68 | 1.46 | 122.7 | 98.3 | 108.5 | 98.8 | 74.3 | 84.5 |
| 1953 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.68 | 1.79 | 1.53 | 118.0 | 95.0 | 113.7 | 101.3 | 76.9 | 93.6 |
| 1954 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.73 | 1.84 | 1.58 | 105.1 | 92.4 | 101.4 | 90.1 | 78.1 | 85.4 |
| 1955 | (2) | (2) | (2) | 1.79 | 1.91 | 1.62 | 109.9 | 98.5 | 108.0 | 97.0 | 85.4 | 94.8 |
| 1956 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 1.89 | 2.01 | 1.72 | 113.5 | 106.5 | 108.4 | 106.2 | 96.9 | 100.2 |
| 1957 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 1.99 | 2.12 | 1.80 | 110.8 | 102.3 | 104.8 | 109.1 | 98.3 | 101.4 |
| 1958 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.05 | 2.21 | 1.86 | 94.4 | 95.4 | 93.8 | 93.7 | 95.4 | 93.5 |
| 1959 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.12 | 2.28 | 1.92 | 94.8 | 102.3 | 101.3 | 97.2 | 106.2 | 105.1 |
| 1960 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.20 | 2.36 | 1.99 | 91.5 | 98.3 | 99.7 | 95.6 | 107.1 | 106.7 |
| 1961 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.25 | 2.42 | 2.05 | 85.6 | 96.1 | 96.1 | 90.6 | 108.8 | 105.4 |
| 1962 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 2.31 | 2.48 | 2.09 | 83.3 | 99.1 | 100.6 | 90.2 | 116.1 | 113.8 |
| 1963 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 2.7 | 2.37 | 2.54 | 2.15 | 82.3 | 102.5 | 101.4 | 90.7 | 123.8 | 117.9 |
| 1964 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 2.9 | 2.44 | 2.60 | 2.21 | 82.7 | 105.2 | 103.9 | 93.1 | 132.4 | 124.3 |
| 1965 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 2.51 | 2.67 | 2.27 | 83.0 | 110.5 | 110.4 | 97.1 | 144.6 | 136.6 |
| 1966 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 2.59 | 2.76 | 2.35 | 82.2 | 114.7 | 117.8 | 100.8 | 157.6 | 151.4 |
| 1967 [3] | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 2.72 | 2.88 | 2.47 | 79.4 | 113.2 | 115.2 | 101.9 | 164.1 | 154.1 |

Spendable average weekly earnings, worker with three dependents

| Year | In current dollars | | | | | | In 1957–59 dollars | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total private [4] | Mining | Contract construction | Manufacturing | Wholesale and retail trade | Finance, insurance, real estate [5] | Total private [4] | Mining | Contract construction | Manufacturing | Wholesale and retail trade | Finance, insurance, real estate [5] |
| 1947 | $44.64 | $56.42 | $55.53 | $47.58 | $37.69 | $42.70 | $57.38 | $72.52 | $71.38 | $61.16 | $48.44 | $54.88 |
| 1948 | 48.51 | 62.85 | 62.60 | 52.31 | 40.39 | 45.03 | 57.89 | 75.00 | 74.70 | 62.42 | 48.20 | 53.74 |
| 1949 | 49.74 | 60.10 | 64.55 | 52.95 | 42.50 | 47.15 | 59.93 | 72.41 | 77.77 | 63.80 | 51.20 | 56.81 |
| 1950 | 52.04 | 63.81 | 65.94 | 56.36 | 43.88 | 49.76 | 62.10 | 76.15 | 78.69 | 67.26 | 52.36 | 59.38 |
| 1951 | 55.79 | 68.88 | 71.21 | 60.18 | 47.07 | 53.23 | 61.65 | 76.11 | 78.69 | 66.50 | 52.01 | 58.82 |
| 1952 | 57.87 | 71.30 | 75.51 | 62.98 | 48.46 | 55.07 | 62.56 | 77.08 | 81.63 | 68.09 | 52.39 | 59.54 |
| 1953 | 60.31 | 75.65 | 78.36 | 65.60 | 50.57 | 57.02 | 64.71 | 81.17 | 84.08 | 70.39 | 54.26 | 61.18 |
| 1954 | 60.85 | 75.58 | 80.76 | 65.65 | 51.89 | 58.86 | 65.01 | 80.75 | 86.28 | 70.14 | 55.44 | 62.98 |
| 1955 | 63.41 | 81.04 | 82.16 | 69.79 | 53.36 | 60.37 | 67.96 | 86.86 | 88.06 | 74.80 | 57.19 | 64.71 |
| 1956 | 65.82 | 85.57 | 86.65 | 72.25 | 55.21 | 61.77 | 69.50 | 90.36 | 91.50 | 76.29 | 58.30 | 65.23 |
| 1957 | 67.71 | 88.30 | 89.63 | 74.31 | 56.76 | 63.09 | 69.09 | 90.10 | 91.46 | 75.83 | 57.92 | 64.38 |
| 1958 | 69.11 | 86.20 | 92.51 | 75.23 | 58.48 | 65.15 | 68.63 | 85.60 | 91.87 | 74.71 | 58.07 | 64.70 |
| 1959 | 71.86 | 91.94 | 95.82 | 79.40 | 60.44 | 67.06 | 70.80 | 90.58 | 94.40 | 78.23 | 59.55 | 66.07 |
| 1960 | 72.96 | 92.92 | 99.15 | 80.11 | 61.38 | 68.59 | 70.77 | 90.13 | 96.17 | 77.70 | 59.53 | 66.53 |
| 1961 | 74.48 | 94.13 | 103.29 | 82.18 | 62.48 | 70.15 | 71.48 | 90.34 | 99.13 | 78.87 | 59.96 | 67.32 |
| 1962 | 76.77 | 96.90 | 106.78 | 85.53 | 64.37 | 73.07 | 73.05 | 91.94 | 101.31 | 81.15 | 61.07 | 69.33 |
| 1963 | 78.56 | 99.69 | 110.18 | 87.58 | 65.67 | 75.36 | 73.63 | 93.43 | 103.26 | 82.08 | 61.55 | 70.63 |
| 1964 | 82.57 | 104.40 | 116.40 | 92.18 | 68.93 | 78.14 | 76.38 | 96.58 | 107.68 | 85.27 | 63.77 | 72.28 |
| 1965 | 86.30 | 110.27 | 122.83 | 96.78 | 71.12 | 81.20 | 78.53 | 100.34 | 111.77 | 88.06 | 64.71 | 73.89 |
| 1966 | 88.55 | 114.34 | 127.07 | 99.45 | 72.70 | 83.59 | 78.29 | 101.10 | 112.35 | 87.93 | 64.28 | 73.91 |
| 1967 [3] | 90.98 | 118.88 | 133.36 | 101.26 | 75.05 | 86.88 | 78.23 | 102.22 | 114.67 | 87.07 | 64.53 | 74.70 |

Labor turnover rates per 100 employees, manufacturing

| Year | Accessions | | Separations | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | New hires | Total | Quits | Layoffs |
| 1947 | 6.2 | (2) | 5.7 | 4.1 | 1.1 |
| 1948 | 5.4 | (2) | 5.4 | 3.4 | 1.6 |
| 1949 | 4.3 | (2) | 5.0 | 1.9 | 2.9 |
| 1950 | 5.3 | (2) | 4.1 | 2.3 | 1.3 |
| 1951 | 5.3 | 4.1 | 5.3 | 2.9 | 1.4 |
| 1952 | 5.4 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 2.8 | 1.4 |
| 1953 | 4.8 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 2.8 | 1.6 |
| 1954 | 3.6 | 1.9 | 4.1 | 1.4 | 2.3 |
| 1955 | 4.5 | 3.0 | 3.9 | 1.9 | 1.5 |
| 1956 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 1.9 | 1.7 |
| 1957 | 3.6 | 2.2 | 4.2 | 1.6 | 2.1 |
| 1958 | 3.6 | 1.7 | 4.1 | 1.1 | 2.6 |
| 1959 | [6] 4.2 | 2.6 | [6] 4.1 | 1.5 | 2.0 |
| 1960 | 3.8 | 2.2 | 4.3 | 1.3 | 2.4 |
| 1961 | 4.1 | 2.2 | 4.0 | 1.2 | 2.2 |
| 1962 | 4.1 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 1.4 | 2.0 |
| 1963 | 3.9 | 2.4 | 3.9 | 1.4 | 1.8 |
| 1964 | 4.0 | 2.6 | 3.9 | 1.5 | 1.7 |
| 1965 | 4.3 | 3.1 | 4.1 | 1.9 | 1.4 |
| 1966 | 5.0 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 2.6 | 1.2 |
| 1967 [7] | 4.4 | 3.2 | 4.6 | 2.3 | 1.4 |

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[1] Prior to the availability of weekly overtime hours beginning 1956, these data were derived by applying adjustment factors to gross average hourly earnings. (See the *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1950, pp. 537–540.)

[2] Not available.

[3] Preliminary unweighted average.

[4] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[5] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

[6] Transfers between establishments of the same firm are included in total accessions and total separations beginning 1959, therefore rates for these items are not strictly comparable with prior data. Transfers comprise part of other accessions and other separations, the rates for which are not shown separately.

[7] Preliminary.

NOTE: For hours and earning series in mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade and finance, insurance, and real estate, to nonsupervisory workers.

## Table D–1. Employees on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Thousands]

| Region and State | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **New England** | 4,263 | 4,189 | 3,998 | 3,864 | 3,813 | 3,793 | 3,718 | 3,701 | 3,647 | 3,531 | 3,648 | 3,647 | 3,549 | 3,492 | 3,587 | 3,514 | 3,506 | 3,345 | 3,234 | 3,373 | 3,333 |
| Maine | 313 | 307 | 294 | 284 | 279 | 279 | 277 | 278 | 274 | 266 | 274 | 279 | 275 | 270 | 276 | 276 | 272 | 254 | 252 | 265 | 263 |
| New Hampshire | 241 | 232 | 217 | 209 | 205 | 205 | 199 | 198 | 193 | 185 | 189 | 187 | 184 | 177 | 178 | 176 | 175 | 168 | 164 | 173 | 169 |
| Vermont | 136 | 131 | 120 | 112 | 110 | 109 | 106 | 107 | 107 | 103 | 106 | 106 | 102 | 102 | 104 | 100 | 100 | 97 | 95 | 99 | 99 |
| Massachusetts | 2,125 | 2,095 | 2,019 | 1,964 | 1,951 | 1,952 | 1,921 | 1,910 | 1,887 | 1,825 | 1,873 | 1,866 | 1,818 | 1,792 | 1,845 | 1,810 | 1,823 | 1,761 | 1,712 | 1,760 | 1,731 |
| Rhode Island | 332 | 329 | 317 | 304 | 298 | 298 | 292 | 292 | 287 | 277 | 285 | 296 | 295 | 291 | 304 | 304 | 308 | 299 | 281 | 299 | 298 |
| Connecticut | 1,116 | 1,095 | 1,031 | 990 | 969 | 950 | 924 | 917 | 900 | 876 | 922 | 913 | 875 | 860 | 880 | 848 | 829 | 766 | 730 | 776 | 774 |
| **Middle Atlantic** | 13,382 | 13,143 | 12,691 | 12,312 | 12,095 | 12,050 | 11,827 | 11,912 | 11,776 | 11,599 | 11,991 | 11,852 | 11,530 | 11,342 | 11,696 | 11,451 | 11,361 | 10,876 | 10,623 | 10,979 | 10,813 |
| New York | 6,861 | 6,721 | 6,520 | 6,371 | 6,274 | 6,261 | 6,158 | 6,182 | 6,128 | 6,027 | 6,179 | 6,093 | 5,917 | 5,828 | 5,936 | 5,828 | 5,755 | 5,576 | 5,473 | 5,596 | 5,518 |
| New Jersey | 2,403 | 2,353 | 2,256 | 2,169 | 2,129 | 2,096 | 2,034 | 2,017 | 1,971 | 1,911 | 1,968 | 1,934 | 1,865 | 1,821 | 1,850 | 1,804 | 1,768 | 1,657 | 1,596 | 1,657 | 1,623 |
| Pennsylvania | 4,118 | 4,069 | 3,915 | 3,773 | 3,692 | 3,692 | 3,635 | 3,713 | 3,677 | 3,660 | 3,843 | 3,826 | 3,748 | 3,692 | 3,910 | 3,819 | 3,838 | 3,643 | 3,555 | 3,725 | 3,672 |
| **East North Central** | 13,800 | 13,533 | 12,858 | 12,243 | 11,887 | 11,662 | 11,367 | 11,643 | [2] 11,473 | [3] 11,071 | 11,725 | 11,750 | 11,503 | 11,055 | 11,569 | 11,071 | 10,940 | 10,368 | 9,936 | 10,327 | 10,067 |
| Ohio | 3,595 | 3,528 | 3,357 | 3,212 | 3,144 | 3,099 | 3,044 | 3,147 | 3,113 | 3,007 | 3,230 | 3,220 | 3,129 | 3,028 | 3,150 | 3,006 | 2,953 | 2,760 | 2,655 | 2,786 | 2,708 |
| Indiana | 1,771 | 1,737 | 1,631 | 1,546 | 1,499 | 1,461 | 1,408 | 1,431 | [2] 1,397 | 1,333 | 1,408 | 1,406 | 1,377 | 1,320 | 1,422 | 1,360 | 1,353 | 1,272 | 1,188 | 1,227 | 1,194 |
| Illinois | 4,165 | 4,072 | 3,864 | 3,696 | 3,599 | 3,557 | 3,487 | 3,522 | 3,500 | 3,412 | 3,558 | 3,538 | 3,410 | 3,317 | 3,444 | 3,350 | 3,297 | 3,160 | 3,088 | 3,206 | 3,165 |
| Michigan | 2,832 | 2,801 | 2,674 | 2,518 | 2,412 | 2,337 | 2,247 | 2,351 | 2,297 | [3] 2,204 | 2,376 | 2,440 | 2,479 | 2,321 | 2,456 | 2,275 | 2,266 | 2,154 | 2,019 | 2,094 | 2,014 |
| Wisconsin | 1,437 | 1,395 | 1,332 | 1,271 | 1,234 | 1,207 | 1,180 | 1,192 | 1,166 | 1,115 | 1,152 | 1,147 | 1,108 | 1,070 | 1,097 | 1,080 | 1,071 | 1,022 | 987 | 1,015 | 986 |
| **West North Central** | 5,008 | 4,870 | 4,627 | 4,449 | 4,343 | 4,272 | 4,186 | 4,193 | 4,134 | 4,012 | 4,058 | 4,032 | 3,943 | 3,881 | 3,946 | 3,879 | 3,798 | 3,608 | 3,493 | 3,525 | 3,414 |
| Minnesota | 1,181 | 1,142 | 1,082 | 1,029 | 1,003 | 986 | 958 | 960 | 933 | 909 | 919 | 909 | 882 | 863 | 875 | 844 | 836 | 803 | 775 | 793 | 766 |
| Iowa | 840 | 808 | 755 | 720 | 701 | 686 | 680 | 681 | 675 | 647 | 654 | 649 | 632 | 619 | 632 | 630 | 631 | 610 | 593 | 596 | 577 |
| Missouri | 1,577 | 1,544 | 1,476 | 1,415 | 1,380 | 1,352 | 1,327 | 1,345 | 1,333 | 1,298 | 1,322 | 1,314 | 1,286 | 1,267 | 1,308 | 1,289 | 1,257 | 1,185 | 1,143 | 1,162 | 1,136 |
| North Dakota | 151 | 148 | 146 | 142 | 136 | 131 | 126 | 126 | 128 | 123 | 121 | 120 | 116 | 117 | 115 | 113 | 109 | 109 | 106 | 103 | 97 |
| South Dakota | 163 | 159 | 152 | 151 | 152 | 152 | 147 | 142 | 138 | 133 | 132 | 133 | 128 | 125 | 125 | 122 | 120 | 119 | 116 | 115 | 110 |
| Nebraska | 442 | 432 | 416 | 406 | 399 | 393 | 387 | 381 | 369 | 357 | 356 | 357 | 355 | 348 | 349 | 344 | 334 | 319 | 312 | 313 | 301 |
| Kansas | 654 | 637 | 600 | 586 | 573 | 572 | 561 | 559 | 559 | 546 | 554 | 550 | 544 | 541 | 544 | 538 | 511 | 464 | 448 | 443 | 427 |
| **South Atlantic** | 9,329 | 9,044 | 8,546 | 8,121 | 7,818 | 7,550 | 7,274 | 7,213 | 7,053 | 6,784 | 6,828 | 6,690 | 6,392 | 6,122 | 6,233 | 6,153 | 5,964 | 5,564 | 5,325 | 5,420 | 5,269 |
| Delaware | 195 | 192 | 184 | 171 | 163 | 156 | 152 | 154 | 151 | 149 | 154 | 157 | 144 | 135 | 139 | 134 | 129 | 121 | 113 | 115 | 111 |
| Maryland | 1,187 | 1,135 | 1,060 | 1,012 | 979 | 949 | 911 | 896 | 876 | 855 | 882 | 870 | 835 | 803 | 815 | 793 | 769 | 716 | 686 | 697 | 673 |
| District of Columbia | 665 | 641 | 618 | 598 | 585 | 567 | 548 | 536 | 526 | 513 | 514 | 509 | 503 | 499 | 517 | 537 | 534 | 498 | 489 | 483 | 477 |
| Virginia | 1,325 | 1,285 | 1,219 | 1,163 | 1,124 | 1,082 | 1,035 | 1,018 | 1,001 | 967 | 972 | 956 | 912 | 880 | 903 | 898 | 869 | 805 | 775 | 786 | 772 |
| West Virginia | 498 | 492 | 477 | 461 | 450 | 448 | 448 | 460 | 465 | 470 | 509 | 502 | 481 | 475 | 513 | 526 | 538 | 524 | 523 | 551 | 520 |
| North Carolina | 1,569 | 1,524 | 1,426 | 1,352 | 1,299 | 1,259 | 1,209 | 1,196 | 1,164 | 1,109 | 1,101 | 1,099 | 1,059 | 1,012 | 1,024 | 1,007 | 987 | 928 | 868 | 895 | 880 |
| South Carolina | 748 | 734 | 686 | 651 | 631 | 610 | 587 | 583 | 567 | 546 | 545 | 543 | 533 | 520 | 544 | 544 | 506 | 461 | 443 | 456 | 436 |
| Georgia | 1,354 | 1,323 | 1,257 | 1,187 | 1,140 | 1,093 | 1,051 | 1,051 | 1,030 | 989 | 997 | 994 | 960 | 915 | 930 | 905 | 872 | 807 | 770 | 779 | 759 |
| Florida | 1,788 | 1,718 | 1,619 | 1,527 | 1,447 | 1,388 | 1,334 | 1,321 | 1,273 | 1,186 | 1,153 | 1,060 | 966 | 883 | 849 | 809 | 760 | 704 | 657 | 658 | 641 |
| **East South Central** | 3,510 | 3,440 | 3,236 | 3,071 | 2,962 | 2,861 | 2,765 | 2,760 | 2,716 | 2,634 | 2,665 | 2,635 | 2,545 | 2,458 | 2,521 | 2,467 | 2,401 | 2,247 | 2,160 | 2,242 | 2,148 |
| Kentucky | 827 | 803 | 759 | 722 | 703 | 674 | 648 | 654 | 647 | 635 | 657 | 649 | 620 | 599 | 631 | 620 | 599 | 557 | 537 | 557 | 530 |
| Tennessee | 1,217 | 1,189 | 1,107 | 1,046 | 1,003 | 969 | 934 | 926 | 907 | 875 | 887 | 887 | 868 | 842 | 853 | 827 | 808 | 759 | 722 | 754 | 717 |
| Alabama | 939 | 929 | 885 | 844 | 813 | 792 | 775 | 776 | 764 | 742 | 755 | 735 | 703 | 678 | 693 | 681 | 663 | 620 | 605 | 629 | 610 |
| Mississippi | 527 | 519 | 485 | 460 | 444 | 426 | 409 | 404 | 397 | 381 | 367 | 364 | 354 | 340 | 344 | 340 | 334 | 312 | 297 | 303 | 291 |
| **West South Central** | 5,439 | 5,228 | 4,934 | 4,711 | 4,544 | 4,418 | 4,287 | 4,270 | 4,235 | 4,125 | 4,155 | 4,064 | 3,889 | 3,751 | 3,791 | 3,736 | 3,596 | 3,333 | 3,218 | 3,225 | 3,059 |
| Arkansas | 497 | 487 | 455 | 429 | 415 | 397 | 376 | 367 | 359 | 344 | 337 | 333 | 321 | 311 | 320 | 323 | 319 | 298 | 288 | 294 | 286 |
| Louisiana | 1,003 | 963 | 906 | 856 | 817 | 795 | 781 | 790 | 789 | 783 | 803 | 772 | 726 | 709 | 711 | 684 | 670 | 636 | 623 | 618 | 592 |
| Oklahoma | 699 | 682 | 648 | 624 | 612 | 602 | 587 | 582 | 573 | 557 | 565 | 563 | 551 | 531 | 535 | 527 | 504 | 477 | 466 | 463 | 437 |
| Texas | 3,240 | 3,096 | 2,925 | 2,801 | 2,700 | 2,625 | 2,544 | 2,532 | 2,513 | 2,442 | 2,450 | 2,396 | 2,291 | 2,200 | 2,225 | 2,202 | 2,104 | 1,921 | 1,841 | 1,850 | 1,743 |
| **Mountain** | 2,334 | 2,284 | 2,176 | 2,109 | 2,066 | 2,005 | 1,927 | 1,873 | 1,797 | 1,711 | 1,685 | 1,625 | 1,538 | 1,462 | 1,475 | 1,442 | 1,375 | 1,276 | 1,221 | 1,221 | 1,170 |
| Montana | 190 | 187 | 181 | 176 | 175 | 172 | 167 | 167 | 165 | 162 | 165 | 169 | 162 | 157 | 157 | 155 | 151 | 149 | 147 | 145 | 138 |
| Idaho | 187 | 185 | 178 | 169 | 165 | 165 | 159 | 155 | 155 | 151 | 148 | 145 | 139 | 133 | 136 | 138 | 139 | 132 | 126 | 125 | 123 |
| Wyoming | 100 | 98 | 97 | 98 | 97 | 96 | 97 | 97 | 93 | 88 | 88 | 88 | 86 | 86 | 88 | 86 | 83 | 80 | 79 | 80 | 73 |
| Colorado | 648 | 627 | 595 | 578 | 566 | 552 | 537 | 515 | 493 | 471 | 471 | 452 | 433 | 412 | 417 | 413 | 393 | 358 | 338 | 345 | 335 |
| New Mexico | 273 | 272 | 263 | 256 | 249 | 243 | 236 | 236 | 234 | 221 | 210 | 198 | 183 | 175 | 179 | 171 | 161 | 152 | 141 | 134 | 123 |
| Arizona | 443 | 435 | 404 | 389 | 377 | 365 | 347 | 334 | 309 | 287 | 273 | 251 | 226 | 209 | 208 | 198 | 181 | 162 | 154 | 155 | 146 |
| Utah | 328 | 318 | 301 | 294 | 295 | 287 | 274 | 265 | 254 | 242 | 242 | 236 | 225 | 213 | 219 | 216 | 209 | 190 | 184 | 184 | 179 |
| Nevada | 165 | 162 | 157 | 149 | 143 | 127 | 110 | 103 | 96 | 88 | 88 | 86 | 85 | 76 | 72 | 66 | 59 | 54 | 51 | 53 | 54 |
| **Pacific** | 8,354 | 8,080 | 7,594 | 7,308 | 7,074 | 6,856 | 6,575 | [4] 6,463 | [5] 6,263 | 5,763 | 5,808 | 5,629 | 5,326 | 5,064 | 5,098 | 4,952 | 4,715 | 4,331 | 4,178 | 4,281 | 4,171 |
| Washington | 1,043 | 989 | 897 | 855 | 851 | 857 | 819 | 813 | 813 | 790 | 803 | 785 | 768 | 741 | 749 | 746 | 735 | 684 | 671 | 686 | 671 |
| Oregon | 650 | 639 | 607 | 573 | 549 | 528 | 509 | 509 | 498 | 475 | 480 | 492 | 475 | 456 | 469 | 468 | 462 | 438 | 419 | 433 | 420 |
| California | 6,346 | 6,147 | 5,800 | 5,607 | 5,412 | 5,218 | 4,996 | 4,896 | 4,775 | 4,499 | 4,525 | 4,352 | 4,083 | 3,866 | 3,881 | 3,738 | 3,518 | 3,209 | 3,068 | 3,163 | 3,080 |
| Alaska | 75 | 73 | 71 | 65 | 62 | 59 | 57 | 57 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |
| Hawaii | 240 | 232 | 219 | 208 | 200 | 195 | 194 | 189 | 177 | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ | ------ |

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[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Beginning 1959, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of a break in the series.

[3] Beginning 1958, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of conversion to the 1957 Standard Industrial Classification.

[4] Includes Alaska beginning 1960.

[5] Includes Hawaii beginning 1959.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.

SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D–2. Employees on Payrolls of Manufacturing Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–67

[Thousands]

| Region and State | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 | 1956 | 1955 | 1954 | 1953 | 1952 | 1951 | 1950 | 1949 | 1948 | 1947 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 1,557 | 1,546 | 1,460 | 1,411 | 1,423 | 1,453 | 1,428 | 1,452 | 1,450 | 1,382 | 1,488 | 1,522 | 1,484 | 1,472 | 1,600 | 1,554 | 1,564 | 1,469 | 1,391 | 1,530 | 1,543 |
| Maine | 116 | 114 | 108 | 104 | 103 | 104 | 103 | 105 | 103 | 100 | 107 | 111 | 108 | 107 | 115 | 116 | 116 | 109 | 106 | 114 | 115 |
| New Hampshire | 97 | 96 | 90 | 86 | 86 | 89 | 86 | 87 | 87 | 81 | 84 | 84 | 83 | 80 | 83 | 82 | 83 | 79 | 75 | 83 | 84 |
| Vermont | 44 | 43 | 39 | 35 | 35 | 36 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 33 | 37 | 39 | 37 | 38 | 41 | 39 | 40 | 37 | 35 | 39 | 41 |
| Massachusetts | 697 | 694 | 666 | 650 | 664 | 688 | 685 | 698 | 698 | 666 | 706 | 719 | 701 | 692 | 752 | 733 | 747 | 716 | 685 | 733 | 731 |
| Rhode Island | 126 | 127 | 121 | 116 | 116 | 119 | 117 | 120 | 120 | 113 | 121 | 129 | 132 | 130 | 146 | 146 | 151 | 148 | 135 | 154 | 155 |
| Connecticut | 477 | 472 | 436 | 421 | 421 | 418 | 404 | 407 | 407 | 389 | 433 | 439 | 423 | 425 | 462 | 437 | 427 | 380 | 354 | 406 | 419 |
| Middle Atlantic | 4,326 | 4,334 | 4,164 | 4,030 | 4,010 | 4,050 | 3,992 | 4,127 | 4,102 | 4,040 | 4,396 | 4,412 | 4,328 | 4,297 | 4,623 | 4,436 | 4,416 | 4,153 | 3,994 | 4,329 | 4,331 |
| New York | 1,911 | 1,903 | 1,838 | 1,795 | 1,804 | 1,838 | 1,823 | 1,879 | 1,893 | 1,867 | 2,024 | 2,042 | 2,007 | 2,006 | 2,119 | 2,045 | 2,007 | 1,916 | 1,853 | 1,977 | 1,994 |
| New Jersey | 874 | 875 | 836 | 806 | 809 | 813 | 791 | 809 | 801 | 775 | 835 | 835 | 811 | 802 | 856 | 833 | 821 | 756 | 722 | 786 | 783 |
| Pennsylvania | 1,541 | 1,556 | 1,490 | 1,429 | 1,397 | 1,399 | 1,378 | 1,440 | 1,408 | 1,397 | 1,536 | 1,535 | 1,510 | 1,489 | 1,648 | 1,558 | 1,588 | 1,481 | 1,419 | 1,567 | 1,554 |
| East North Central | 5,088 | 5,158 | 4,886 | 4,621 | 4,495 | 4,417 | 4,233 | 4,495 | 4,485 | [2] 4,236 | 4,769 | 4,882 | 4,894 | 4,632 | 5,168 | 4,822 | 4,805 | 4,493 | 4,195 | 4,552 | 4,557 |
| Ohio | 1,388 | 1,399 | 1,324 | 1,257 | 1,235 | 1,216 | 1,181 | 1,263 | 1,263 | 1,197 | 1,369 | 1,391 | 1,368 | 1,312 | 1,444 | 1,355 | 1,337 | 1,218 | 1,140 | 1,260 | 1,267 |
| Indiana | 714 | 720 | 674 | 631 | 615 | 602 | 568 | 594 | 584 | 548 | 617 | 623 | 629 | 590 | 681 | 626 | 624 | 580 | 520 | 561 | 556 |
| Illinois | 1,379 | 1,391 | 1,302 | 1,238 | 1,204 | 1,199 | 1,165 | 1,211 | 1,226 | 1,172 | 1,294 | 1,315 | 1,275 | 1,228 | 1,340 | 1,271 | 1,262 | 1,198 | 1,142 | 1,230 | 1,253 |
| Michigan | 1,101 | 1,140 | 1,094 | 1,026 | 981 | 944 | 879 | 968 | 952 | [2] 887 | 1,026 | 1,061 | 1,164 | 1,061 | 1,222 | 1,097 | 1,112 | 1,063 | 981 | 1,058 | 1,042 |
| Wisconsin | 506 | 508 | 492 | 470 | 461 | 456 | 439 | 460 | 460 | 432 | 464 | 471 | 458 | 442 | 480 | 474 | 470 | 435 | 412 | 444 | 439 |
| West North Central | 1,209 | 1,175 | 1,085 | 1,042 | 1,020 | 1,008 | 978 | 1,001 | 998 | 957 | 1,008 | 1,002 | 985 | 984 | 1,052 | 1,008 | 959 | 874 | 841 | 871 | 864 |
| Minnesota | 293 | 283 | 262 | 247 | 243 | 240 | 229 | 230 | 225 | 219 | 230 | 226 | 216 | 216 | 231 | 220 | 214 | 201 | 193 | 204 | 205 |
| Iowa | 219 | 212 | 192 | 183 | 179 | 174 | 171 | 177 | 178 | 165 | 170 | 173 | 171 | 165 | 176 | 174 | 171 | 154 | 150 | 155 | 152 |
| Missouri | 449 | 443 | 417 | 403 | 394 | 387 | 376 | 393 | 391 | 375 | 397 | 395 | 389 | 388 | 421 | 395 | 378 | 354 | 340 | 356 | 355 |
| North Dakota | 9 | 9 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| South Dakota | 15 | 14 | 14 | 13 | 15 | 14 | 14 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| Nebraska | 79 | 75 | 69 | 68 | 67 | 68 | 67 | 67 | 64 | 60 | 61 | 61 | 62 | 61 | 64 | 62 | 57 | 52 | 51 | 52 | 52 |
| Kansas | 145 | 139 | 122 | 121 | 116 | 118 | 115 | 116 | 120 | 120 | 131 | 127 | 129 | 136 | 141 | 139 | 120 | 95 | 89 | 87 | 84 |
| South Atlantic | 2,542 | 2,503 | 2,348 | 2,229 | 2,163 | 2,111 | 2,027 | 2,040 | 2,004 | 1,911 | 1,966 | 1,956 | 1,904 | 1,813 | 1,879 | 1,818 | 1,794 | 1,682 | 1,589 | 1,695 | 1,662 |
| Delaware | 71 | 70 | 68 | 62 | 59 | 56 | 55 | 59 | 58 | 58 | 62 | 61 | 59 | 57 | 61 | 59 | 56 | 51 | 48 | 50 | 47 |
| Maryland | 283 | 279 | 264 | 257 | 260 | 258 | 256 | 259 | 257 | 258 | 278 | 277 | 266 | 259 | 275 | 263 | 259 | 233 | 224 | 240 | 235 |
| District of Columbia | 21 | 21 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 |
| Virginia | 344 | 340 | 323 | 309 | 298 | 292 | 276 | 275 | 270 | 258 | 265 | 263 | 255 | 247 | 259 | 251 | 245 | 230 | 222 | 238 | 237 |
| West Virginia | 131 | 132 | 129 | 126 | 124 | 123 | 120 | 125 | 127 | 122 | 133 | 133 | 131 | 127 | 138 | 136 | 140 | 131 | 129 | 142 | 139 |
| North Carolina | 656 | 644 | 596 | 562 | 542 | 531 | 509 | 509 | 497 | 470 | 470 | 471 | 460 | 437 | 449 | 435 | 433 | 418 | 387 | 415 | 412 |
| South Carolina | 319 | 314 | 293 | 278 | 270 | 260 | 247 | 245 | 238 | 227 | 232 | 234 | 231 | 220 | 227 | 222 | 220 | 210 | 201 | 211 | 203 |
| Georgia | 429 | 427 | 403 | 378 | 363 | 350 | 333 | 341 | 339 | 320 | 331 | 339 | 335 | 312 | 321 | 311 | 307 | 287 | 265 | 282 | 276 |
| Florida | 288 | 276 | 252 | 237 | 229 | 222 | 211 | 207 | 199 | 180 | 175 | 160 | 147 | 135 | 129 | 121 | 114 | 102 | 95 | 98 | 96 |
| East South Central | 1,109 | 1,106 | 1,023 | 952 | 910 | 875 | 829 | 844 | 835 | 797 | 828 | 828 | 806 | 755 | 789 | 750 | 740 | 693 | 654 | 719 | 710 |
| Kentucky | 223 | 221 | 206 | 192 | 183 | 175 | 166 | 172 | 171 | 161 | 172 | 175 | 168 | 154 | 162 | 151 | 153 | 140 | 132 | 141 | 138 |
| Tennessee | 430 | 426 | 387 | 362 | 345 | 332 | 314 | 316 | 308 | 290 | 302 | 305 | 297 | 280 | 294 | 278 | 268 | 250 | 238 | 261 | 256 |
| Alabama | 292 | 293 | 277 | 257 | 247 | 240 | 231 | 237 | 238 | 233 | 246 | 242 | 236 | 226 | 235 | 226 | 225 | 216 | 206 | 227 | 224 |
| Mississippi | 164 | 166 | 153 | 140 | 134 | 128 | 119 | 120 | 119 | 113 | 107 | 107 | 105 | 96 | 99 | 95 | 94 | 86 | 77 | 90 | 92 |
| West South Central | 1,087 | 1,048 | 969 | 917 | 875 | 847 | 814 | 820 | 818 | 800 | 830 | 825 | 790 | 761 | 784 | 754 | 720 | 650 | 622 | 648 | 625 |
| Arkansas | 150 | 148 | 134 | 125 | 119 | 113 | 105 | 102 | 99 | 90 | 88 | 90 | 86 | 81 | 83 | 82 | 83 | 76 | 70 | 77 | 75 |
| Louisiana | 176 | 167 | 158 | 152 | 146 | 139 | 136 | 142 | 143 | 144 | 153 | 155 | 155 | 156 | 166 | 155 | 151 | 145 | 144 | 157 | 157 |
| Oklahoma | 115 | 113 | 103 | 97 | 91 | 90 | 87 | 87 | 87 | 85 | 90 | 93 | 89 | 83 | 85 | 80 | 73 | 66 | 64 | 67 | 62 |
| Texas | 646 | 620 | 574 | 543 | 518 | 504 | 487 | 490 | 489 | 481 | 499 | 487 | 461 | 442 | 450 | 437 | 413 | 364 | 344 | 347 | 331 |
| Mountain | 321 | 318 | 290 | 287 | 290 | 285 | 274 | 264 | 247 | 229 | 230 | 223 | 208 | 194 | 199 | 196 | 188 | 168 | 157 | 164 | 160 |
| Montana | 23 | 23 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 21 | 20 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 |
| Idaho | 35 | 36 | 33 | 32 | 30 | 31 | 30 | 29 | 29 | 26 | 26 | 28 | 26 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 25 | 22 | 21 | 22 | 21 |
| Wyoming | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 7 |
| Colorado | 103 | 99 | 90 | 91 | 93 | 93 | 92 | 88 | 81 | 75 | 76 | 72 | 69 | 68 | 71 | 70 | 69 | 62 | 57 | 60 | 60 |
| New Mexico | 18 | 18 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 17 | 16 | 17 | 17 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 9 | 8 |
| Arizona | 78 | 78 | 65 | 60 | 58 | 55 | 51 | 49 | 46 | 41 | 41 | 37 | 33 | 28 | 29 | 29 | 24 | 17 | 15 | 16 | 15 |
| Utah | 50 | 50 | 49 | 52 | 55 | 54 | 50 | 47 | 42 | 39 | 39 | 37 | 35 | 33 | 34 | 32 | 32 | 29 | 29 | 28 | 27 |
| Nevada | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Pacific | 2,064 | 1,994 | 1,827 | 1,791 | 1,794 | 1,789 | 1,706 | [3] 1,710 | [4] 1,710 | 1,573 | 1,648 | 1,579 | 1,475 | 1,382 | 1,408 | 1,339 | 1,240 | 1,076 | 1,003 | 1,053 | 1,035 |
| Washington | 278 | 265 | 227 | 219 | 224 | 233 | 218 | 217 | 226 | 219 | 226 | 213 | 208 | 195 | 201 | 197 | 197 | 179 | 174 | 179 | 178 |
| Oregon | 165 | 167 | 158 | 152 | 145 | 143 | 139 | 144 | 147 | 137 | 139 | 148 | 146 | 139 | 146 | 148 | 150 | 138 | 128 | 140 | 135 |
| California | 1,590 | 1,531 | 1,411 | 1,389 | 1,394 | 1,383 | 1,318 | 1,317 | 1,313 | 1,217 | 1,284 | 1,218 | 1,121 | 1,049 | 1,061 | 995 | 803 | 760 | 702 | 734 | 722 |
| Alaska | 6 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 6 | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Hawaii | 25 | 24 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 26 | 26 | 25 | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |

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[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Beginning 1958, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of conversion to the 1957 Standard Industrial Classification.

[3] Includes Alaska beginning 1960.

[4] Includes Hawaii beginning 1959.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.

SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

# Table D–3. Total Unemployment by State: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Thousands]

| State | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 56 | 53 | 56 | 61 | 72 | 80 | 84 | 73 | 73 | 94 | (2) |
| Alaska | 8 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 5 |
| Arizona | 24 | 21 | 27 | 26 | 25 | 25 | 28 | 22 | 20 | 24 | 15 |
| Arkansas | 32 | 31 | 35 | 36 | 38 | 43 | 44 | 37 | 35 | 44 | 32 |
| California | 389 | 374 | 428 | 422 | 411 | 389 | 446 | 367 | 292 | 377 | 243 |
| Colorado | 26 | 25 | 27 | 28 | 35 | 32 | 32 | 25 | 22 | 26 | 18 |
| Connecticut | 43 | 40 | 47 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 74 | 60 | 70 | 91 | 46 |
| Delaware | 8 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 8 | 10 | 11 | (2) |
| District of Columbia [3] | 26 | 27 | 24 | 26 | 24 | 21 | 24 | 22 | 21 | 25 | 19 |
| Florida | 68 | 60 | 68 | 81 | 101 | 107 | 126 | 95 | 84 | 97 | 58 |
| Georgia | 61 | 58 | 63 | 71 | 77 | 83 | 106 | 85 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Hawaii | 10 | 9 | 9 | 10 | 12 | 12 | 10 | 8 | 7 | 8 | 8 |
| Idaho | 12 | 11 | 12 | 14 | 15 | 15 | 17 | 14 | 13 | 15 | 12 |
| Illinois | 149 | 131 | 158 | 171 | 194 | 206 | 256 | 185 | 210 | 274 | 161 |
| Indiana | 66 | 52 | 60 | 76 | 82 | 90 | 122 | 97 | 91 | 145 | 82 |
| Iowa | 29 | 24 | 27 | 30 | 33 | 36 | 43 | 33 | 29 | 35 | 30 |
| Kansas | 24 | 23 | 29 | 30 | 32 | 31 | 39 | 33 | 29 | 36 | 26 |
| Kentucky | 47 | 45 | 50 | 59 | 60 | 70 | 87 | 72 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Louisiana | 63 | 56 | 63 | 69 | 77 | 87 | 99 | 75 | 69 | (2) | (2) |
| Maine | 15 | 16 | 18 | 23 | 25 | 25 | 31 | 27 | 25 | 31 | 20 |
| Maryland | 43 | 41 | 50 | 55 | 60 | 65 | 72 | 62 | 64 | 70 | 39 |
| Massachusetts | 101 | 102 | 115 | 132 | 135 | 125 | 135 | 115 | 116 | 149 | 92 |
| Michigan | 157 | 117 | [illegible] | 148 | 166 | 205 | 301 | 198 | 251 | 418 | 202 |
| Minnesota | 47 | 48 | 61 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 84 | 67 | 75 | 99 | 63 |
| Mississippi | 39 | 33 | 36 | 44 | 47 | 49 | 61 | 50 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Missouri | 68 | 65 | 71 | 79 | 89 | 98 | 112 | 84 | 78 | 104 | 75 |
| Montana | 13 | 13 | 13 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 18 | 17 | 15 | 19 | 13 |
| Nebraska | 16 | 17 | 20 | 20 | 21 | 21 | 22 | 17 | 18 | 21 | 20 |
| Nevada | 13 | 12 | 12 | 10 | 9 | 7 | 9 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 6 |
| New Hampshire | 6 | 5 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 13 | 9 |
| New Jersey | 129 | 123 | 140 | 162 | 169 | 159 | 186 | 169 | 176 | 223 | 157 |
| New Mexico | 18 | 18 | 19 | 21 | 20 | 19 | 22 | 18 | 11 | 12 | 10 |
| New York | 315 | 335 | 365 | 395 | 415 | 400 | 480 | 430 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| North Carolina | 72 | 65 | 83 | 93 | 98 | 99 | 118 | 100 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| North Dakota | 10 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 14 | 17 | 13 | 11 | 12 | 7 |
| Ohio | 135 | 121 | 143 | 167 | 197 | 220 | 287 | 210 | 184 | 306 | 151 |
| Oklahoma | 35 | 35 | 40 | 43 | 47 | 47 | 55 | 45 | 41 | 50 | (2) |
| Oregon | 42 | 36 | 37 | 39 | 38 | 41 | 47 | 35 | 35 | 52 | 41 |
| Pennsylvania | 167 | 163 | 206 | 276 | 333 | 364 | 427 | 375 | 424 | 498 | 301 |
| Puerto Rico | 97 | 91 | 89 | 80 | 81 | 84 | 82 | 76 | 99 | 89 | 82 |
| Rhode Island | 14 | 14 | 18 | 22 | 25 | 24 | 28 | 24 | 27 | 40 | 32 |
| South Carolina | 48 | 42 | 45 | 51 | 55 | 53 | 65 | 51 | 38 | 48 | 41 |
| South Dakota | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 11 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 8 | (2) |
| Tennessee | 65 | 52 | 61 | 73 | 87 | 86 | 99 | 81 | 82 | 122 | 89 |
| Texas | 121 | 130 | 168 | 186 | 204 | 195 | 220 | 190 | 165 | 186 | 142 |
| Utah | 19 | 18 | 22 | 21 | 19 | 17 | 17 | 15 | 14 | 16 | 11 |
| Vermont | 7 | 7 | 7 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 11 | 8 | 7 | 10 | (2) |
| Virginia | 47 | 44 | 48 | 53 | 54 | 58 | 69 | 61 | 59 | 72 | 48 |
| Washington | 55 | 52 | 63 | 74 | 71 | 63 | 74 | 69 | 62 | 76 | 55 |
| West Virginia | 40 | 43 | 48 | 53 | 62 | 74 | 86 | 76 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Wisconsin | 65 | 57 | 60 | 66 | 69 | 68 | 82 | 65 | 52 | 82 | 49 |
| Wyoming | 5 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 6 | (2) | (2) | (2) |

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

[3] Data relate to the standard metropolitan statistical area.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D–4. Total Unemployment Rates by State: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Total unemployment as percent of total work force]

| State | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 4.4 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.8 | 7.2 | 6.3 | 6.4 | 8.1 | (2) |
| Alaska | 8.7 | 9.1 | 8.6 | 8.5 | 9.4 | 9.4 | 9.9 | 8.0 | 9.5 | 10.3 | 8.0 |
| Arizona | 4.2 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 3.9 |
| Arkansas | 4.5 | 4.5 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 6.7 | 7.1 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 5.7 |
| California | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 5.8 | 6.9 | 5.8 | 4.8 | 6.4 | 4.2 |
| Colorado | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 2.7 |
| Connecticut | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 5.1 | 6.7 | 5.6 | 6.4 | 8.4 | 4.2 |
| Delaware | 3.3 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 5.6 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 5.9 | (2) |
| District of Columbia [3] | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 2.5 |
| Florida | 2.9 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.8 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 6.6 | 5.2 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 3.5 |
| Georgia | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 7.1 | 5.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Hawaii | 3.5 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 3.7 |
| Idaho | 4.4 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 6.4 | 5.4 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 4.6 |
| Illinois | 3.0 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 5.8 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 6.3 | 3.7 |
| Indiana | 3.2 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 6.8 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 8.2 | 4.6 |
| Iowa | 2.4 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 2.8 |
| Kansas | 2.8 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 4.4 | 3.2 |
| Kentucky | 4.1 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 6.6 | 8.1 | 7.1 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Louisiana | 4.7 | 4.3 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 6.4 | 7.3 | 8.3 | 6.5 | 6.0 | (2) | (2) |
| Maine | 4.0 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 6.2 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 8.4 | 7.4 | 6.7 | 8.5 | 5.3 |
| Maryland | 3.1 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 3.6 |
| Massachusetts | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 5.4 | 5.9 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 7.0 | 4.4 |
| Michigan | 4.6 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 5.5 | 6.9 | 10.2 | 6.7 | 8.5 | 13.8 | 6.6 |
| Minnesota | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 7.0 | 4.5 |
| Mississippi | 4.8 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 6.[illegible] | 6.5 | 8.0 | 6.7 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Missouri | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 6.0 | 4.6 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 4.1 |
| Montana | 4.7 | 4.7 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 7.3 | 6.7 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 5.2 |
| Nebraska | 2.5 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.2 |
| Nevada | 6.4 | 5.9 | 6.4 | 5.6 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 7.8 | 5.2 |
| New Hampshire | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 4.4 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 5.3 | 3.7 |
| New Jersey | 4.5 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 6.1 | 7.2 | 6.7 | 7.0 | 9.0 | 6.4 |
| New Mexico | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 6.5 | 5.4 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 3.2 |
| New York | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 5.6 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| North Carolina | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 6.4 | 5.5 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| North Dakota | 4.1 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 6.8 | 5.0 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 2.5 |
| Ohio | 3.2 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 7.4 | 5.3 | 4.7 | 7.8 | 3.8 |
| Oklahoma | 3.6 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.9 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 5.6 | (2) |
| Oregon | 4.9 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 7.5 | 5.9 |
| Pennsylvania | 3.5 | 3.4 | 4.4 | 6.0 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 9.2 | 8.0 | 8.9 | 10.5 | 6.4 |
| Puerto Rico | 12.3 | 11.0 | 11.2 | 10.7 | 11.3 | 12.3 | 12.5 | 12.1 | 13.8 | 13.9 | 13.0 |
| Rhode Island | 3.7 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 6.2 | 6.9 | 6.6 | 8.0 | 6.7 | 7.6 | 11.4 | 9.1 |
| South Carolina | 4.7 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 6.9 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 4.7 |
| South Dakota | 3.0 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 2.7 | 3.0 | (2) |
| Tennessee | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 7.6 | 6.3 | 6.4 | 9.4 | 7.1 |
| Texas | 2.9 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 6.0 | 5.3 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 4.0 |
| Utah | 4.7 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 5.2 | 3.6 |
| Vermont | 3.9 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 6.1 | 6.7 | 6.1 | 7.0 | 5.4 | 4.7 | 6.8 | (2) |
| Virginia | 2.8 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 5.2 | 3.5 |
| Washington | 4.2 | 4.1 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 6.8 | 6.4 | 5.7 | 7.2 | 5.2 |
| West Virginia | 6.4 | 6.8 | 7.8 | 8.8 | 10.3 | 12.0 | 13.5 | 11.9 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Wisconsin | 3.6 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 5.0 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 5.1 | 3.0 |
| Wyoming | 4.0 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 6.3 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 4.4 | (2) | (2) | (2) |

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Comparable data not available.
[3] Data relate to the standard metropolitan statistical area.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D-5. Insured Unemployment Under State Programs, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Thousands]

| State | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| United States | 1,204.5 | 1,061.4 | 1,327.6 | 1,605.4 | 1,805.8 | 1,783.1 | 2,290.3 | 1,905.8 | 1,682.5 | 2,508.9 | 1,449.8 |
| Alabama | 17.2 | 13.6 | 14.9 | 17.9 | 22.9 | 25.9 | 32.1 | 28.7 | 26.7 | 36.8 | 22.2 |
| Alaska | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 3.2 |
| Arizona | 8.5 | 6.8 | 10.9 | 10.5 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 11.0 | 8.3 | 7.9 | 9.4 | 5.2 |
| Arkansas | 11.1 | 9.6 | 12.1 | 13.9 | 15.5 | 16.5 | 20.5 | 16.7 | 13.9 | 19.7 | 14.4 |
| California | 200.1 | 186.4 | 233.1 | 231.1 | 227.6 | 208.8 | 243.8 | 206.8 | 145.4 | 218.2 | 121.6 |
| Colorado | 5.4 | 5.0 | 7.0 | 7.6 | 10.9 | 10.7 | 10.7 | 9.0 | 6.6 | 9.0 | 4.9 |
| Connecticut | 17.5 | 13.7 | 20.3 | 27.4 | 28.4 | 26.7 | 37.9 | 34.1 | 31.7 | 51.8 | 24.1 |
| Delaware | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 5.3 | 3.0 |
| District of Columbia | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.9 | 5.5 | 6.0 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 6.2 | 4.5 |
| Florida | 19.9 | 18.1 | 21.2 | 25.5 | 30.8 | 34.8 | 42.4 | 31.9 | 26.4 | 32.6 | 18.3 |
| Georgia | 15.9 | 12.1 | 15.3 | 19.7 | 23.1 | 25.3 | 37.9 | 31.7 | 27.0 | 39.9 | 27.0 |
| Hawaii | 5.3 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 5.1 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 5.9 | 3.7 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 2.8 |
| Idaho | 4.8 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 6.9 | 5.8 | 4.9 | 6.0 | 5.0 |
| Illinois | 47.5 | 37.8 | 52.1 | 67.6 | 83.8 | 83.0 | 112.0 | 90.3 | 84.2 | 139.6 | 67.6 |
| Indiana | 20.2 | 13.7 | 18.5 | 26.4 | 30.1 | 33.6 | 51.7 | 40.1 | 32.0 | 62.2 | 33.1 |
| Iowa | 6.9 | 4.9 | 6.7 | 8.5 | 9.3 | 11.0 | 15.0 | 11.9 | 8.0 | 11.7 | 8.8 |
| Kansas | 6.1 | 5.5 | 8.4 | 9.5 | 10.4 | 9.7 | 12.7 | 12.8 | 9.3 | 12.7 | 8.5 |
| Kentucky | 14.9 | 12.0 | 15.8 | 20.3 | 21.5 | 24.9 | 34.9 | 29.6 | 26.3 | 45.5 | 32.6 |
| Louisiana | 17.2 | 13.1 | 16.7 | 19.3 | 23.2 | 26.1 | 33.8 | 28.5 | 25.3 | 26.2 | 13.0 |
| Maine | 5.7 | 5.4 | 6.6 | 9.3 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 15.7 | 13.7 | 13.5 | 18.9 | 10.9 |
| Maryland | 14.7 | 13.1 | 18.3 | 23.1 | 25.9 | 30.0 | 36.7 | 33.7 | 32.6 | 37.8 | 17.2 |
| Massachusetts | 50.8 | 48.3 | 60.1 | 77.1 | 83.7 | 74.2 | 85.8 | 76.2 | 64.9 | 90.0 | 61.1 |
| Michigan | 62.2 | 40.5 | 38.2 | 52.1 | 62.5 | 76.4 | 131.9 | 93.9 | 88.4 | 199.8 | 92.9 |
| Minnesota | 15.0 | 15.3 | 21.7 | 27.9 | 29.8 | 28.3 | 35.2 | 28.9 | 26.5 | 35.8 | 22.3 |
| Mississippi | 8.2 | 6.3 | 7.8 | 11.4 | 13.2 | 13.4 | 19.0 | 15.4 | 13.3 | 18.1 | 14.6 |
| Missouri | 25.8 | 22.5 | 25.6 | 30.9 | 35.8 | 38.0 | 47.9 | 39.7 | 33.0 | 47.3 | 30.0 |
| Montana | 4.1 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 8.4 | 7.7 | 7.2 | 8.6 | 6.0 |
| Nebraska | 3.6 | 3.6 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 5.4 | 4.2 | 6.2 | 5.2 |
| Nevada | 5.8 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 5.3 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.5 | 2.7 |
| New Hampshire | 2.2 | 1.6 | 3.3 | 5.6 | 6.9 | 5.3 | 7.5 | 6.4 | 5.9 | 9.6 | 5.9 |
| New Jersey | 59.6 | 54.0 | 64.7 | 78.9 | 86.4 | 80.3 | 93.8 | 85.1 | 81.5 | 115.8 | 79.6 |
| New Mexico | 5.0 | 4.7 | 5.6 | 6.0 | 6.3 | 6.4 | 8.3 | 6.5 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 3.3 |
| New York | 161.0 | 169.6 | 201.7 | 237.0 | 263.1 | 241.3 | 287.6 | 252.6 | 255.5 | 318.2 | 187.1 |
| North Carolina | 24.1 | 19.6 | 25.2 | 33.2 | 36.2 | 35.0 | 47.2 | 38.0 | 34.3 | 51.4 | 38.9 |
| North Dakota | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 2.4 |
| Ohio | 44.1 | 33.0 | 46.3 | 66.8 | 87.9 | 96.7 | 138.9 | 112.6 | 71.6 | 156.6 | 65.1 |
| Oklahoma | 10.5 | 10.3 | 13.1 | 15.1 | 17.3 | 16.8 | 21.3 | 17.8 | 14.8 | 20.0 | 12.3 |
| Oregon | 19.1 | 14.6 | 15.7 | 18.1 | 18.4 | 19.5 | 26.0 | 20.0 | 16.7 | 26.5 | 22.6 |
| Pennsylvania | 74.2 | 62.5 | 86.0 | 127.6 | 169.3 | 181.2 | 234.9 | 197.6 | 198.4 | 283.0 | 156.4 |
| Puerto Rico[1] | 31.6 | 30.3 | 33.0 | 32.1 | 30.5 | 15.7 | 15.1 | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- |
| Rhode Island | 8.2 | 7.1 | 8.5 | 11.2 | 13.0 | 11.9 | 14.7 | 12.9 | 12.6 | 19.4 | 16.3 |
| South Carolina | 12.6 | 8.3 | 10.4 | 13.3 | 14.3 | 13.3 | 18.3 | 14.1 | 12.8 | 19.1 | 15.0 |
| South Dakota | 1.3 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 1.7 |
| Tennessee | 24.6 | 16.7 | 20.7 | 27.0 | 32.5 | 34.8 | 45.3 | 37.0 | 31.1 | 49.6 | 39.2 |
| Texas | 22.9 | 25.3 | 38.2 | 45.2 | 52.9 | 50.0 | 59.8 | 54.0 | 47.1 | 61.2 | 30.2 |
| Utah | 6.6 | 5.8 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 7.2 | 6.2 | 7.0 | 6.0 | 5.4 | 6.9 | 4.3 |
| Vermont | 2.5 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 4.5 | 3.5 | 4.6 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 4.4 | 2.8 |
| Virginia | 7.8 | 6.4 | 8.9 | 12.0 | 13.6 | 14.6 | 21.6 | 18.3 | 17.1 | 23.8 | 13.3 |
| Washington | 25.7 | 22.1 | 31.4 | 41.1 | 40.8 | 36.1 | 45.3 | 41.3 | 34.8 | 43.6 | 32.0 |
| West Virginia | 10.7 | 9.7 | 11.8 | 14.7 | 18.6 | 21.3 | 27.6 | 25.4 | 28.4 | 39.7 | 14.1 |
| Wisconsin | 21.6 | 17.3 | 19.6 | 25.3 | 27.4 | 26.8 | 39.5 | 28.9 | 23.2 | 41.1 | 23.0 |
| Wyoming | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 1.6 |

[1] Program effective January 1961, with program for sugarcane workers effective July 1963.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given State or for the same year among States is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D–6. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State Programs, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–67

[Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment]

| State | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 | 1959 | 1958 | 1957 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| United States | 2.5 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 6.4 | 3.6 |
| Alabama | 2.6 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 6.1 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 7.1 | 4.2 |
| Alaska | 8.2 | 8.5 | 8.4 | 8.9 | 10.6 | 10.8 | 12.3 | 9.8 | 12.5 | 13.6 | 10.7 |
| Arizona | 2.8 | 2.4 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 2.8 |
| Arkansas | 3.1 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 7.6 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 7.9 | 5.8 |
| California | 4.2 | 4.2 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 6.4 | 5.5 | 4.1 | 6.2 | 3.4 |
| Colorado | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 1.6 |
| Connecticut | 1.9 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 7.0 | 3.1 |
| Delaware | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 4.3 | 2.4 |
| District of Columbia | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 1.8 |
| Florida | 1.7 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 2.4 |
| Georgia | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 5.0 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 5.6 | 3.8 |
| Hawaii | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 2.6 |
| Idaho | 3.4 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 6.0 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 5.6 | 4.8 |
| Illinois | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 5.3 | 2.5 |
| Indiana | 1.5 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 5.9 | 3.0 |
| Iowa | 1.3 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 1.9 | 2.8 | 2.1 |
| Kansas | 1.5 | 1.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 2.4 |
| Kentucky | 2.7 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 7.8 | 6.7 | 6.1 | 10.4 | 7.2 |
| Louisiana | 2.5 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 4.9 | 6.1 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 2.3 |
| Maine | 2.7 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 8.2 | 7.2 | 7.3 | 10.1 | 5.6 |
| Maryland | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.4 | 5.4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 2.5 |
| Massachusetts | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 5.1 | 4.5 | 6.1 | 4.0 |
| Michigan | 2.7 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 7.3 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 11.2 | 4.8 |
| Minnesota | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.9 | 3.8 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 4.2 | 3.9 | 5.4 | 3.5 |
| Mississippi | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 5.0 | 7.0 | 5.8 | 5.2 | 7.3 | 6.0 |
| Missouri | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 3.2 |
| Montana | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 7.7 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 7.9 | 5.2 |
| Nebraska | 1.4 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 2.5 |
| Nevada | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 6.8 | 4.2 |
| New Hampshire | 1.3 | 1.0 | 2.1 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 3.5 | 4.9 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 6.8 | 4.2 |
| New Jersey | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 4.9 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 5.2 |
| New Mexico | 2.9 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 5.2 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 2.4 |
| New York | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 6.4 | 3.8 |
| North Carolina | 2.1 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 5.2 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 6.2 | 4.7 |
| North Dakota | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 3.8 |
| Ohio | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 4.7 | 3.1 | 6.5 | 2.5 |
| Oklahoma | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 5.5 | 3.4 |
| Oregon | 3.9 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 6.5 | 5.2 | 4.6 | 7.6 | 6.4 |
| Pennsylvania | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.4 | 5.8 | 6.3 | 7.9 | 6.7 | 6.8 | 9.4 | 5.0 |
| Puerto Rico [1] | 6.8 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 6.9 | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| Rhode Island | 3.1 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 5.0 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 8.4 | 6.8 |
| South Carolina | 2.3 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 3.8 |
| South Dakota | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 2.5 |
| Tennessee | 2.9 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 6.9 | 5.8 | 5.1 | 8.1 | 6.2 |
| Texas | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 1.8 |
| Utah | 3.2 | 2.9 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 3.6 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 2.6 |
| Vermont | 2.8 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 4.8 | 6.2 | 4.8 | 4.2 | 6.4 | 3.9 |
| Virginia | .9 | .7 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.6 | 2.0 |
| Washington | 3.5 | 3.3 | 5.0 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 6.0 | 7.5 | 6.8 | 5.9 | 7.4 | 5.4 |
| West Virginia | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 5.9 | 6.8 | 8.4 | 7.5 | 8.3 | 11.0 | 3.8 |
| Wisconsin | 2.0 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 3.2 | 2.7 | 4.8 | 2.7 |
| Wyoming | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 4.6 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 2.6 |

[1] Program effective January 1961, with program for sugarcane workers effective July 1963; however, the rates exclude sugarcane workers as comparable covered employment data are not available.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given State or for the same year among States is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D-7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67

[Thousands]

| Major labor area | 1967 [1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama: | | | | | | | | |
| Birmingham | 10.7 | 10.9 | 10.9 | 11.1 | 14.1 | 16.8 | 20.1 | 17.3 |
| Mobile | 6.4 | 5.8 | 6.0 | 6.7 | 6.8 | 8.1 | 8.7 | 7.4 |
| Arizona: | | | | | | | | |
| Phoenix | 13.0 | 10.7 | 14.2 | 12.9 | 12.8 | 13.3 | 15.0 | 11.7 |
| Arkansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Little Rock-North Little Rock | 3.3 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 3.9 |
| California: | | | | | | | | |
| Fresno | 12.3 | 11.4 | 12.2 | 11.9 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 13.2 | 10.4 |
| Los Angeles-Long Beach | 143.2 | 139.1 | 168.3 | 167.3 | 162.2 | 150.6 | 179.9 | 145.1 |
| Sacramento | 16.5 | 15.3 | 16.4 | 15.8 | 15.0 | 15.1 | 15.4 | 13.3 |
| San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario | 21.8 | 21.0 | 22.2 | 18.8 | 17.8 | 16.9 | 20.6 | 17.6 |
| San Diego | 18.2 | 18.7 | 24.8 | 25.6 | 25.8 | 27.0 | 25.3 | 21.1 |
| San Francisco-Oakland | 61.0 | 58.5 | 64.8 | 66.6 | 65.4 | 62.1 | 69.2 | 58.3 |
| San Jose | 17.7 | 17.5 | 20.1 | 19.7 | 17.4 | 16.3 | 16.8 | 14.4 |
| Stockton | 8.0 | 7.2 | 8.2 | 8.4 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 9.2 | 8.2 |
| Colorado: | | | | | | | | |
| Denver | 13.1 | 14.8 | 15.8 | 16.2 | 18.4 | 15.9 | 14.7 | 12.8 |
| Connecticut: | | | | | | | | |
| Bridgeport | 6.0 | 5.7 | 7.3 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 8.5 | 11.3 | 9.9 |
| Hartford | 8.7 | 7.8 | 9.2 | 11.1 | 10.9 | 11.1 | 14.5 | 12.2 |
| New Britain | 1.7 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 4.5 | 3.6 |
| New Haven | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 8.3 | 6.8 |
| Stamford | 2.5 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 2.1 |
| Waterbury | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 7.2 | 5.8 |
| Delaware: | | | | | | | | |
| Wilmington | 7.2 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 8.4 | 10.1 | 7.7 |
| District of Columbia: | | | | | | | | |
| Washington | 26.0 | 26.7 | 23.5 | 25.5 | 24.0 | 20.7 | 23.8 | 21.5 |
| Florida: | | | | | | | | |
| Jacksonville | 4.5 | 4.4 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 7.1 | 6.8 | 8.0 | 5.8 |
| Miami | 15.7 | 16.3 | 18.0 | 22.9 | 36.4 | 38.6 | 39.4 | 27.4 |
| Tampa-St. Petersburg | 7.8 | 7.4 | 8.3 | 9.2 | 11.2 | 12.7 | 18.1 | 15.1 |
| Georgia: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlanta | 16.8 | 16.2 | 14.9 | 15.5 | 15.7 | 16.6 | 22.3 | 18.7 |
| Augusta | 3.5 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 3.2 |
| Columbus | 3.2 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 3.4 |
| Macon | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 2.7 |
| Savannah | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 5.0 | 4.1 |
| Hawaii: | | | | | | | | |
| Honolulu | 7.9 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 7.7 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 7.5 | 5.2 |
| Illinois: | | | | | | | | |
| Chicago | 86.0 | 78.0 | 90.0 | 108.0 | 122.0 | 123.0 | 146.0 | 105.0 |
| Davenport-Rock Island-Moline | 4.3 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 5.2 |
| Peoria | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 6.0 | 7.3 | 5.8 |
| Rockford | 3.7 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 4.4 | (2) | (2) |
| Indiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Evansville | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.7 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Fort Wayne | 2.8 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 4.0 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Gary-Hammond-East Chicago | 7.0 | 6.3 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 11.0 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Indianapolis | 10.5 | 9.7 | 10.2 | 13.8 | 15.3 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| South Bend | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.3 | 7.4 | 4.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Terre Haute | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.7 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Iowa: | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Rapids | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 1.6 |
| Des Moines | 3.2 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.4 | 3.4 |
| Kansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Wichita | 5.0 | 4.5 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 6.8 | 6.4 | 8.2 | 7.7 |
| Kentucky: | | | | | | | | |
| Louisville | 10.4 | 9.9 | 11.0 | 12.6 | 14.4 | 15.8 | 21.8 | 19.7 |
| Louisiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Baton Rouge | 5.7 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 4.9 |
| New Orleans | 17.5 | 13.5 | 16.0 | 18.3 | 20.2 | 23.0 | 24.2 | 20.0 |
| Shreveport | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 5.6 |
| Maine: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 4.3 |
| Maryland: | | | | | | | | |
| Baltimore | 23.5 | 23.3 | 29.5 | 34.2 | 37.3 | 41.6 | 46.0 | 40.4 |
| Massachusetts: | | | | | | | | |
| Boston | 45.5 | 47.9 | 52.4 | 59.7 | 55.6 | 55.6 | 60.4 | 51.5 |
| Brockton | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.5 |
| Fall River | 3.2 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 4.9 |
| Lawrence-Haverhill | 4.8 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 6.5 | 5.6 | 6.6 | 5.8 |
| Lowell | 3.7 | 3.6 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 4.1 |
| New Bedford | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 5.1 |
| Springfield-Holyoke | 10.0 | 9.3 | 11.3 | 13.3 | 14.7 | 14.1 | 13.9 | 12.1 |
| Worcester | 5.7 | 5.6 | 6.3 | 7.8 | 8.8 | 7.7 | 9.1 | 7.3 |
| Michigan: | | | | | | | | |
| Battle Creek | 2.8 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 5.2 | 3.9 |
| Detroit | 70.1 | 52.4 | 53.3 | 64.8 | 73.8 | 98.5 | 157.3 | 98.7 |
| Flint | 8.6 | 6.0 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 6.5 | 13.8 | 7.7 |
| Grand Rapids | 8.6 | 6.5 | 5.6 | 7.4 | 8.1 | 8.5 | 11.3 | 9.0 |
| Kalamazoo | 2.7 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 3.3 |
| Lansing | 4.1 | 3.4 | 2.9 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 9.1 | 4.8 |
| Muskegon-Muskegon Heights | 3.1 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 5.2 | 4.5 |
| Saginaw | 3.5 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 6.1 | 3.6 |
| Minnesota: | | | | | | | | |
| Duluth-Superior | 3.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 4.7 |
| Minneapolis-St. Paul | 16.5 | 16.8 | 20.3 | 23.9 | 24.7 | 23.7 | 28.0 | 21.2 |
| Mississippi: | | | | | | | | |
| Jackson | 3.6 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.9 | 4.4 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Missouri: | | | | | | | | |
| Kansas City | 23.0 | 22.4 | 24.1 | 24.5 | 25.6 | 26.9 | 32.0 | 29.8 |
| St. Louis | 34.5 | 32.2 | 33.2 | 37.4 | 42.9 | 48.1 | 56.2 | 49.0 |
| Nebraska: | | | | | | | | |
| Omaha | 6.6 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 7.0 | 7.4 | 7.3 | 7.6 | 6.4 |
| New Hampshire: | | | | | | | | |
| Manchester | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 3.2 | 2.9 |
| New Jersey: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlantic City | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 5.6 |
| Jersey City | 14.4 | 12.9 | 15.2 | 19.3 | 19.4 | 17.8 | 23.6 | 21.6 |
| Newark | 36.6 | 35.3 | 39.3 | 45.8 | 48.3 | 46.1 | 54.0 | 49.7 |
| New Brunswick-Perth Amboy | 12.1 | 10.6 | 12.4 | 13.6 | 14.6 | 14.3 | 14.8 | 12.8 |
| Paterson-Clifton-Passaic | 22.8 | 22.6 | 26.3 | 30.3 | 28.6 | 26.7 | 33.4 | 30.6 |
| Trenton | 5.5 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 6.6 | 6.8 | 9.1 | 8.0 |
| New Mexico: | | | | | | | | |
| Albuquerque | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 4.0 |
| New York: | | | | | | | | |
| Albany-Schenectady-Troy | 10.8 | 9.6 | 10.0 | 11.5 | 12.4 | 12.6 | 15.9 | 15.1 |
| Binghamton | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 5.4 |
| Buffalo | 22.6 | 21.1 | 23.2 | 27.8 | 34.5 | 38.4 | 48.2 | 37.8 |
| New York | 203.7 | 222.3 | 240.3 | 256.4 | 267.7 | 251.5 | 313.1 | 277.6 |
| Rochester | 8.7 | 8.4 | 10.2 | 10.9 | 13.2 | 12.5 | 15.6 | 13.9 |
| Syracuse | 9.7 | 7.1 | 8.9 | 10.6 | 11.4 | 11.3 | 14.5 | 12.6 |
| Utica-Rome | 6.2 | 5.8 | 7.0 | 8.5 | 8.6 | 8.2 | 9.6 | 9.8 |
| North Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Asheville | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 3.2 |
| Charlotte | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.1 | 4.4 |
| Durham | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 2.6 | 2.7 |
| Greensboro-High Point | 3.6 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 6.1 | 4.6 |
| Winston-Salem | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 3.8 |
| Ohio: | | | | | | | | |
| Akron | 7.1 | 6.5 | 7.8 | 9.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Canton | 4.6 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 8.2 | 9.3 | 11.9 | 8.1 |
| Cincinnati | 16.5 | 15.9 | 20.4 | 24.0 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Cleveland | 25.7 | 23.1 | 26.8 | 30.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Columbus | 9.5 | 9.3 | 10.1 | 11.5 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Dayton | 8.1 | 8.1 | 9.1 | 9.5 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Hamilton-Middletown | 3.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 4.4 | 5.4 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 5.3 |
| Lorain-Elyria | 3.5 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 6.7 | 5.4 |
| Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va. | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 3.8 |
| Toledo | 9.2 | 8.1 | 9.0 | 10.4 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Youngstown-Warren | 8.1 | 7.2 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 12.1 | 15.9 | 19.6 | 15.1 |
| Oklahoma: | | | | | | | | |
| Oklahoma City | 8.7 | 8.3 | 9.0 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 8.6 | 9.4 | 7.5 |
| Tulsa | 6.6 | 6.6 | 7.3 | 7.7 | 9.2 | 8.5 | 10.2 | 8.2 |
| Oregon: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 16.8 | 13.7 | 15.6 | 17.2 | 17.5 | 18.6 | 22.5 | 16.7 |
| Pennsylvania: | | | | | | | | |
| Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton | 5.6 | 5.1 | 6.4 | 9.3 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 14.7 | 11.9 |
| Altoona | 4.1 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 5.2 |
| Erie | 3.9 | 3.1 | 4.2 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 7.7 | 10.2 | 9.1 |
| Harrisburg | 4.3 | 4.3 | 5.3 | 6.5 | 8.4 | 9.7 | 10.8 | 8.5 |
| Johnstown | 5.0 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 6.3 | 9.3 | 13.7 | 17.1 | 12.3 |
| Lancaster | 2.5 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 5.4 | 4.7 |
| Philadelphia | 66.4 | 64.9 | 82.1 | 110.5 | 122.4 | 119.9 | 129.1 | 115.1 |
| Pittsburgh | 30.3 | 27.6 | 33.3 | 49.9 | 71.6 | 85.9 | 100.2 | 84.1 |
| Reading | 2.4 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 4.9 | 5.8 | 5.4 | 7.1 | 5.4 |
| Scranton | 4.1 | 4.7 | 6.5 | 8.3 | 10.6 | 10.9 | 12.4 | 11.7 |
| Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton | 6.0 | 6.6 | 8.4 | 10.2 | 12.9 | 13.4 | 16.7 | 16.2 |
| York | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 5.5 | 7.5 | 7.4 | 8.0 | 6.8 |
| Puerto Rico: | | | | | | | | |
| Mayaguez | 3.7 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 2.8 |
| Ponce | 5.7 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 6.1 | 6.3 | 5.4 | 4.5 | 4.5 |
| San Juan | 16.1 | 15.1 | 14.9 | 14.2 | 14.2 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Rhode Island: | | | | | | | | |
| Providence-Pawtucket | 15.2 | 14.7 | 18.2 | 21.3 | 23.2 | 21.5 | 26.0 | 24.7 |
| South Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 4.8 | (2) | (2) |
| Greenville | 4.7 | 3.6 | 4.8 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 4.2 | (2) | (2) |
| Tennessee: | | | | | | | | |
| Chattanooga | 4.3 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 7.1 | 9.0 | 9.5 | 9.3 | 7.5 |
| Knoxville | 5.0 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 6.6 | 7.7 | 8.0 | 11.1 | 8.3 |
| Memphis | 9.7 | 8.7 | 10.7 | 11.2 | 12.2 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Nashville | 7.0 | 5.9 | 6.6 | 8.2 | 7.7 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Texas: | | | | | | | | |
| Austin | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 3.8 |
| Beaumont-Port Arthur | 5.5 | 4.7 | 6.3 | 8.3 | 9.9 | 9.3 | 9.4 | 9.8 |
| Corpus Christi | 3.8 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 5.9 |
| Dallas | 12.9 | 14.4 | 18.7 | 20.6 | 20.8 | 18.9 | 23.5 | 19.1 |
| El Paso | 4.6 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 4.9 |
| Fort Worth | 6.7 | 7.5 | 9.6 | 10.6 | 11.9 | 12.0 | 13.1 | 10.4 |
| Houston | 15.9 | 17.2 | 22.2 | 25.4 | 28.9 | 26.0 | (2) | (2) |
| San Antonio | 10.2 | 11.3 | 14.6 | 15.5 | 16.7 | 15.4 | 14.0 | 10.5 |
| Utah: | | | | | | | | |
| Salt Lake City | 9.9 | 8.1 | 9.8 | 8.8 | 7.6 | 6.1 | 6.7 | 5.6 |
| Virginia: | | | | | | | | |
| Newport News-Hampton | 2.8 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.2 |
| Norfolk-Portsmouth | 6.9 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 7.8 | 7.6 |
| Richmond | 4.4 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 4.6 | (2) | (2) |
| Roanoke | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 4.7 | 4.6 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Washington: | | | | | | | | |
| Seattle | 18.8 | 16.9 | 24.5 | 32.3 | 29.7 | 24.3 | 30.5 | 28.0 |
| Spokane | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 7.4 | 6.8 |
| Tacoma | 5.4 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 6.9 | 6.1 | 7.5 | 6.7 |
| West Virginia: | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 4.5 | 4.7 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 7.2 | 7.1 | 8.1 | 7.0 |
| Huntington-Ashland | 4.9 | 4.7 | 6.2 | 7.3 | 8.1 | 9.6 | 10.7 | 10.8 |
| Wheeling | 3.7 | 3.6 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 10.6 | 10.0 |
| Wisconsin: | | | | | | | | |
| Kenosha | 2.8 | 2.5 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 3.6 | 1.6 |
| Madison | 2.7 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 2.7 |
| Milwaukee | 17.2 | 13.6 | 15.4 | 17.8 | 19.1 | 19.4 | 28.4 | 19.6 |
| Racine | 2.9 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.6 |

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67

[Total unemployment as percent of total work force]

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama: | | | | | | | | |
| Birmingham | 4.0 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 5.7 | 6.8 | 8.0 | 6.9 |
| Mobile | 5.0 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 6.2 | 6.7 | 5.7 |
| Arizona: | | | | | | | | |
| Phoenix | 3.9 | 3.3 | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.8 | 4.8 |
| Arkansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Little Rock-North Little Rock | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 3.9 |
| California: | | | | | | | | |
| Fresno | 7.0 | 6.6 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 7.7 | 8.0 | 8.6 | 7.0 |
| Los Angeles-Long Beach | 4.6 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.5 | 6.7 | 5.5 |
| Sacramento | 5.5 | 5.2 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 6.2 | 5.5 |
| San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario | 6.3 | 6.2 | 6.7 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 6.6 |
| San Diego | 4.7 | 5.2 | 7.2 | 7.5 | 7.7 | 7.9 | 7.5 | 6.4 |
| San Francisco-Oakland | 4.5 | 4.4 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 5.1 |
| San Jose | 4.5 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 6.2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 6.4 | 5.9 |
| Stockton | 6.7 | 6.4 | 7.5 | 7.9 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 9.2 | 8.3 |
| Colorado: | | | | | | | | |
| Denver | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.2 |
| Connecticut: | | | | | | | | |
| Bridgeport | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.8 | 7.6 | 6.8 |
| Hartford | 2.6 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 4.4 |
| New Britain | 3.3 | 3.2 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 5.8 | 9.6 | 7.6 |
| New Haven | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 4.7 |
| Stamford | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 2.9 |
| Waterbury | 4.0 | 4.3 | 5.2 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.8 | 9.0 | 7.3 |
| Delaware: | | | | | | | | |
| Wilmington | 3.5 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 4.4 |
| District of Columbia: | | | | | | | | |
| Washington | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.6 |
| Florida: | | | | | | | | |
| Jacksonville | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 3.2 |
| Miami | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 5.2 | 8.2 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 6.5 |
| Tampa-St. Petersburg | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 6.4 | 5.4 |
| Georgia: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlanta | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.9 | 4.2 |
| Augusta | 3.6 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.4 | 4.2 |
| Columbus | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.1 |
| Macon | 2.8 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 3.7 |
| Savannah | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 7.4 | 6.0 |
| Hawaii: | | | | | | | | |
| Honolulu | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 2.8 |
| Illinois: | | | | | | | | |
| Chicago | 2.7 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 3.7 |
| Davenport-Rock Island-Moline | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 5.0 | 4.5 |
| Peoria | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 4.6 |
| Rockford | 3.0 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.5 | (2) | (2) |
| Indiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Evansville | 3.6 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 4.3 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Fort Wayne | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 3.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Gary-Hammond-East Chicago | 3.0 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 5.2 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Indianapolis | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 3.9 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| South Bend | 3.2 | 2.7 | 4.2 | 7.1 | 4.6 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Terre Haute | 3.7 | 3.6 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 6.3 | (2) | (2) | (2) |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Iowa: | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Rapids | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.6 | 2.5 |
| Des Moines | 2.3 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 2.7 |
| Kansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Wichita | 2.9 | 2.7 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 5.3 | 5.0 |
| Kentucky: | | | | | | | | |
| Louisville | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 4.8 | 5.4 | 7.5 | 6.7 |
| Louisiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Baton Rouge | 4.8 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 5.4 |
| New Orleans | 4.1 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 6.6 | 7.1 | 5.9 |
| Shreveport | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 5.2 |
| Maine: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 6.3 | 6.6 |
| Maryland: | | | | | | | | |
| Baltimore | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 5.6 |
| Massachusetts: | | | | | | | | |
| Boston | 3.3 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 4.1 |
| Brockton | 4.8 | 4.5 | 5.6 | 6.8 | 7.8 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 7.2 |
| Fall River | 6.1 | 6.3 | 8.0 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 9.7 | 9.5 | 8.5 |
| Lawrence-Haverhill | 5.2 | 5.3 | 6.7 | 7.1 | 7.0 | 6.1 | 7.4 | 6.6 |
| Lowell | 6.3 | 6.2 | 8.1 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 8.1 | 9.1 | 8.0 |
| New Bedford | 6.5 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 7.6 | 7.7 | 7.7 | 9.2 | 8.1 |
| Springfield-Holyoke | 4.6 | 4.3 | 5.4 | 6.4 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 5.9 |
| Worcester | 3.9 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 5.6 | 6.4 | 5.5 | 6.6 | 5.3 |
| Michigan: | | | | | | | | |
| Battle Creek | 4.1 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 6.3 | 7.9 | 5.9 |
| Detroit | 4.3 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 5.2 | 7.0 | 10.9 | 6.8 |
| Flint | 4.9 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 8.9 | 5.0 |
| Grand Rapids | 4.1 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 6.2 | 4.9 |
| Kalamazoo | 3.4 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 4.7 |
| Lansing | 2.9 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 7.9 | 4.2 |
| Muskegon-Muskegon Heights | 5.1 | 3.8 | 4.5 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 9.2 | 7.8 |
| Saginaw | 4.4 | 2.9 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 3.9 | 5.1 | 8.8 | 5.2 |
| Minnesota: | | | | | | | | |
| Duluth-Superior | 4.9 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 7.0 | 8.2 | 9.3 | 9.4 | 7.3 |
| Minneapolis-St. Paul | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 3.2 |
| Mississippi: | | | | | | | | |
| Jackson | 3.5 | 3.2 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 4.8 |
| Missouri: | | | | | | | | |
| Kansas City | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 6.9 | 6.4 |
| St. Louis | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 6.4 | 5.5 |
| Nebraska: | | | | | | | | |
| Omaha | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.2 |
| New Hampshire: | | | | | | | | |
| Manchester | 2.2 | 2.0 | 3.4 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 4.8 | 6.1 | 5.4 |
| New Jersey: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlantic City | 5.5 | 5.7 | 6.5 | 7.4 | 7.8 | 7.9 | 8.8 | 8.1 |
| Jersey City | 4.9 | 4.4 | 5.2 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.0 | 7.9 | 7.2 |
| Newark | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 5.7 | 6.7 | 6.2 |
| New Brunswick-Perth Amboy | 4.4 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 6.5 | 5.8 |
| Paterson-Clifton-Passaic | 4.2 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 5.8 | 5.5 | 7.1 | 6.6 |
| Trenton | 3.8 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 7.0 | 6.1 |
| New Mexico: | | | | | | | | |
| Albuquerque | 4.3 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 4.1 |
| New York: | | | | | | | | |
| Albany-Schenectady-Troy | 3.5 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 5.4 |
| Binghamton | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 4.5 |
| Buffalo | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 6.7 | 7.4 | 9.1 | 7.0 |
| New York | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 5.3 |
| Rochester | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| Syracuse | 3.8 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 6.2 | 5.5 |
| Utica-Rome | 4.6 | 4.3 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 6.5 | 6.1 | 7.1 | 7.2 |
| North Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Asheville | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.6 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 7.2 | 5.9 |
| Charlotte | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.5 |
| Durham | 4.1 | 4.4 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 6.7 | 6.4 | 5.2 | 5.5 |
| Greensboro-High Point | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 3.9 |
| Winston-Salem | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 4.3 |
| Ohio: | | | | | | | | |
| Akron | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Canton | 3.2 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 4.4 | 6.3 | 7.0 | 8.9 | 5.9 |
| Cincinnati | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 4.8 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Cleveland | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.6 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Columbus | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 3.3 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Dayton | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.0 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Hamilton-Middletown | 3.9 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 6.0 | 7.5 | 8.0 | 9.1 | 6.9 |
| Lorain-Elyria | 4.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 8.9 | 7.1 |
| Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va | 4.0 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 6.4 | 6.6 | 7.0 | 6.1 |
| Toledo | 3.5 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.4 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Youngstown-Warren | 3.8 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 6.5 | 8.3 | 9.9 | 7.4 |
| Oklahoma: | | | | | | | | |
| Oklahoma City | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 3.5 |
| Tulsa | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 5.9 | 4.7 |
| Oregon: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 4.0 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 5.2 | 6.5 | 4.8 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Pennsylvania:** | | | | | | | | |
| Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 6.7 | 5.4 |
| Altoona | 7.6 | 6.6 | 6.7 | 8.7 | 10.2 | 10.7 | 11.9 | 9.8 |
| Erie | 3.6 | 2.9 | 4.1 | 5.9 | 7.6 | 7.8 | 10.5 | 9.3 |
| Harrisburg | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 4.8 |
| Johnstown | 5.4 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 7.1 | 10.6 | 15.1 | 18.2 | 12.9 |
| Lancaster | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 3.9 |
| Philadelphia | 3.3 | 3.3 | 4.3 | 5.9 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 6.9 | 6.2 |
| Pittsburgh | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 5.5 | 7.9 | 9.3 | 10.7 | 8.8 |
| Reading | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 5.7 | 4.4 |
| Scranton | 4.2 | 4.9 | 6.8 | 8.8 | 11.0 | 11.2 | 12.6 | 11.8 |
| Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton | 4.4 | 4.8 | 6.3 | 7.7 | 9.6 | 10.0 | 12.5 | 12.1 |
| York | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 4.2 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 6.3 | 5.4 |
| **Puerto Rico:** | | | | | | | | |
| Mayaguez | 12.3 | 12.1 | 13.7 | 13.2 | 14.5 | 13.2 | 12.4 | 11.5 |
| Ponce | 12.9 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 14.0 | 14.9 | 13.3 | 11.6 | 11.7 |
| San Juan | 5.6 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 6.1 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| **Rhode Island:** | | | | | | | | |
| Providence-Pawtucket | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 6.3 | 5.9 | 7.3 | 7.0 |
| **South Carolina:** | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 6.1 | (2) | (2) |
| Greenville | 3.6 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 5.3 | 4.3 | (2) | (2) |
| **Tennessee:** | | | | | | | | |
| Chattanooga | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 5.7 | 7.4 | 7.9 | 7.9 | 7.6 |
| Knoxville | 3.1 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 5.8 |
| Memphis | 3.2 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 4.4 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| Nashville | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 3.7 | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| **Texas:** | | | | | | | | |
| Austin | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 3.5 | 4.6 | 4.6 |
| Beaumont-Port Arthur | 4.6 | 4.0 | 5.3 | 6.9 | 8.2 | 7.5 | 7.7 | 8.2 |
| Corpus Christi | 4.0 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 7.7 |
| Dallas | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 4.9 | 4.1 |
| El Paso | 4.0 | 4.4 | 5.8 | 6.0 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 4.8 |
| Fort Worth | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 4.7 |
| Houston | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 4.1 | (2) | (2) |
| San Antonio | 3.7 | 4.3 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 6.9 | 6.5 | 6.0 | 4.6 |
| **Utah:** | | | | | | | | |
| Salt Lake City | 4.0 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 3.3 |
| **Virginia:** | | | | | | | | |
| Newport News-Hampton | 2.7 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.1 |
| Norfolk-Portsmouth | 3.2 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| Richmond | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.2 | (2) | (2) |
| Roanoke | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 6.5 | 6.5 |
| **Washington:** | | | | | | | | |
| Seattle | 3.1 | 3.0 | 4.8 | 6.6 | 6.0 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 6.1 |
| Spokane | 4.5 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 6.9 | 7.6 | 6.9 |
| Tacoma | 4.3 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 5.8 | 7.3 | 6.6 |
| **West Virginia:** | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 4.5 | 4.9 | 6.2 | 7.2 | 7.7 | 7.6 | 8.5 | 7.5 |
| Huntington-Ashland | 5.1 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 7.9 | 9.0 | 10.7 | 11.8 | 11.9 |
| Wheeling | 5.5 | 5.3 | 6.6 | 7.3 | 10.1 | 12.0 | 15.0 | 14.0 |
| **Wisconsin:** | | | | | | | | |
| Kenosha | 7.5 | 6.3 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 9.0 | 3.8 |
| Madison | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 2.7 |
| Milwaukee | 2.9 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 5.4 | 3.7 |
| Racine | 4.6 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 6.3 | 5.0 |

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

# Table D–9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67

[Thousands]

| Major labor area | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama: | | | | | | | | |
| Birmingham | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 6.6 | 7.6 | 7.3 |
| Mobile | 2.1 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 2.7 |
| Arizona: | | | | | | | | |
| Phoenix | 5.1 | 3.9 | 6.1 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 6.3 | 4.3 |
| Arkansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Little Rock-North Little Rock | .7 | .6 | .8 | .9 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 2.4 | 1.5 |
| California: | | | | | | | | |
| Fresno | 5.8 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.3 | 6.6 | 5.0 |
| Los Angeles-Long Beach | 74.5 | 70.1 | 94.2 | 101.1 | 102.4 | 87.8 | 114.9 | 91.7 |
| Sacramento | 8.7 | 8.1 | 8.7 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 7.0 | 6.3 | 5.3 |
| San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario | 11.3 | 10.7 | 11.5 | 9.1 | 8.6 | 7.9 | 9.6 | 9.0 |
| San Diego | 10.1 | 10.1 | 13.2 | 13.5 | 13.8 | 15.2 | 14.2 | 12.8 |
| San Francisco-Oakland | 32.5 | 30.6 | 35.1 | 35.9 | 36.0 | 33.7 | 37.9 | 31.2 |
| San Jose | 9.1 | 9.0 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 9.6 | 8.6 | 9.8 | 8.1 |
| Stockton | 4.3 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.3 |
| Colorado: | | | | | | | | |
| Denver | 2.9 | 2.8 | 4.1 | 4.6 | 6.2 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 4.0 |
| Connecticut: | | | | | | | | |
| Bridgeport | 2.8 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 5.8 | 5.7 |
| Hartford | 3.0 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 7.2 | 6.3 |
| New Britain | .7 | .6 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 2.4 | 2.0 |
| New Haven | 2.5 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 3.7 |
| Stamford | .8 | .7 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| Waterbury | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 3.7 | 3.4 |
| Delaware: | | | | | | | | |
| Wilmington | 2.8 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 3.3 |
| District of Columbia: | | | | | | | | |
| Washington | 6.0 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 7.6 | 7.2 | 6.5 | 8.0 | 6.3 |
| Florida: | | | | | | | | |
| Jacksonville | .9 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 2.0 |
| Miami | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 8.4 | 10.3 | 11.0 | 8.7 |
| Tampa-St. Petersburg | 3.2 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 7.4 | 5.7 |
| Georgia: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlanta | 3.9 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 5.4 | 9.3 | 7.3 |
| Augusta | .7 | .5 | .6 | .8 | .9 | .9 | 2.9 | 1.1 |
| Columbus | .6 | .5 | .6 | .7 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.4 |
| Macon | .4 | .4 | .4 | .6 | .8 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.0 |
| Savannah | .6 | .6 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 2.2 | 1.7 |
| Hawaii: | | | | | | | | |
| Honolulu | 4.0 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.4 | 2.6 |
| Illinois: | | | | | | | | |
| Chicago | 26.5 | 21.6 | 31.0 | 42.3 | 52.3 | 49.5 | 68.2 | 53.8 |
| Davenport-Rock Island-Moline | 1.2 | .8 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.8 | 2.5 |
| Peoria | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| Rockford | 1.0 | .5 | .9 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 2.0 |
| Indiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Evansville | 1.2 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 2.4 | 2.2 |
| Fort Wayne | .7 | .5 | .7 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 2.0 | 1.6 |
| Gary-Hammond-East Chicago | 2.0 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 4.2 | 6.2 | 6.7 | 5.3 |
| Indianapolis | 2.6 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 6.8 | 5.5 |
| South Bend | 1.0 | .7 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 4.7 | 2.9 |
| Terre Haute | .9 | .8 | 1.0 | .8 | .9 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| Iowa: | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Rapids | .2 | .2 | .3 | .3 | .4 | .5 | 1.0 | .7 |
| Des Moines | .7 | .5 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 1.5 |
| Kansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Wichita | 1.3 | 1.0 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 3.1 | 3.4 |
| Kentucky: | | | | | | | | |
| Louisville | 3.1 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 8.8 | 8.4 |
| Louisiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Baton Rouge | 1.1 | .7 | .8 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 3.0 | 1.4 |
| New Orleans | 5.0 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 5.0 | 6.2 | 7.5 | 9.6 | 7.6 |
| Shreveport | .8 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 2.0 |
| Maine | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | .6 | .8 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 1.9 |
| Maryland: | | | | | | | | |
| Baltimore | 8.5 | 8.1 | 11.6 | 14.7 | 16.7 | 20.0 | 24.0 | 21.9 |
| Massachusetts: | | | | | | | | |
| Boston | 20.6 | 21.2 | 25.2 | 31.0 | 31.4 | 29.5 | 33.8 | 28.9 |
| Brockton | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.0 |
| Fall River | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 5.0 |
| Lawrence-Haverhill | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 4.0 | 5.2 | 4.0 |
| Lowell | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 3.7 |
| New Bedford | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 3.3 | (1) | (1) |
| Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke | 4.8 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 6.6 | 7.5 | 7.8 | 8.5 | 8.2 |
| Worcester | 2.9 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 4.5 | 5.8 | 4.5 |
| Michigan: | | | | | | | | |
| Battle Creek | 1.1 | .7 | .8 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 2.0 | 1.7 |
| Detroit | 29.5 | 19.8 | 17.1 | 24.1 | 28.7 | 39.5 | 77.7 | 48.4 |
| Flint | 4.3 | 2.7 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 7.7 | 2.7 |
| Grand Rapids | 3.1 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 3.3 |
| Kalamazoo | 1.0 | .6 | .8 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.4 |
| Lansing | 1.6 | 1.1 | .8 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 4.6 | 1.8 |
| Muskegon-Muskegon Heights | 1.1 | .6 | .7 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 2.1 |
| Saginaw | 1.5 | .5 | .5 | .6 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 2.9 | 1.5 |
| Minnesota: | | | | | | | | |
| Duluth-Superior | 1.3 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.0 |
| Minneapolis-St. Paul | 4.2 | 4.7 | 7.9 | 10.7 | 11.4 | 10.9 | 14.9 | 11.1 |
| Mississippi: | | | | | | | | |
| Jackson | .6 | .4 | .6 | .8 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.1 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D-9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Missouri: | | | | | | | | |
| Kansas City | 5.9 | 5.7 | 6.4 | 7.0 | 8.8 | 8.9 | 12.4 | 11.8 |
| St. Louis | 14.0 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 14.2 | 17.1 | 20.5 | 27.1 | 20.3 |
| Nebraska: | | | | | | | | |
| Omaha | 1.8 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.0 |
| New Hampshire: | | | | | | | | |
| Manchester | .5 | .4 | 1.0 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 1.9 |
| New Jersey: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlantic City | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.0 |
| Jersey City | 8.0 | 6.8 | 7.8 | 9.5 | 10.7 | 9.8 | 11.6 | (1) |
| Newark | 17.3 | 15.8 | 17.9 | 21.6 | 23.8 | 22.2 | 25.9 | 26.5 |
| New Brunswick-Perth Amboy | 5.6 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 7.1 | 7.3 | 8.2 | 6.2 |
| Paterson-Clifton-Passaic | 12.0 | 11.6 | 13.5 | 16.3 | 16.5 | 14.7 | 18.0 | 19.2 |
| Trenton | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 4.8 |
| New Mexico: | | | | | | | | |
| Albuquerque | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.9 | 2.1 |
| New York: | | | | | | | | |
| Albany-Schenectady-Troy | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 8.2 | 8.3 |
| Binghamton | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.4 |
| Buffalo | 10.4 | 9.3 | 11.1 | 14.4 | 18.2 | 19.5 | 24.9 | 19.9 |
| New York | 114.8 | 134.8 | 151.7 | 167.8 | 182.3 | 163.9 | 188.5 | 168.5 |
| Rochester | 4.0 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 3.6 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 6.6 | 5.7 |
| Syracuse | 4.3 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.0 | 7.2 | 7.0 |
| Utica-Rome | 3.3 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 5.7 |
| North Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Asheville | .9 | .6 | .8 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.2 |
| Charlotte | 1.0 | .8 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 2.0 |
| Durham | .7 | .6 | .9 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.0 |
| Greensboro-High Point | .9 | .8 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 3.0 | 2.3 |
| Winston-Salem | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 1.7 |
| Ohio: | | | | | | | | |
| Akron | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 7.6 | 5.3 |
| Canton | 1.6 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 4.3 |
| Cincinnati | 5.4 | 4.9 | 7.0 | 7.4 | 8.4 | 9.0 | 12.0 | 10.0 |
| Cleveland | 8.1 | 6.2 | 8.9 | 12.6 | 17.1 | 20.4 | 30.2 | 22.4 |
| Columbus | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| Dayton | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 6.7 | 5.5 |
| Hamilton-Middletown | 1.3 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.0 |
| Lorain-Elyria | 1.3 | .8 | .9 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 3.2 |
| Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va. | 1.1 | .8 | .8 | .9 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.2 |
| Toledo | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 5.1 | 8.5 | 5.2 |
| Youngstown-Warren | 3.3 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 5.9 | 9.1 | 9.9 | 9.5 |
| Oklahoma: | | | | | | | | |
| Oklahoma City | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.1 | 3.0 |
| Tulsa | 1.6 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.7 | 3.5 |
| Oregon: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 6.9 | 4.9 | 6.0 | 7.2 | 7.6 | 8.1 | 11.2 | 8.0 |
| Pennsylvania: | | | | | | | | |
| Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton | 3.4 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 | 7.4 | 7.1 | 8.9 | 7.7 |
| Altoona | 1.2 | .9 | .9 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 1.8 |
| Erie | 1.6 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 4.5 |
| Harrisburg | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 3.8 |
| Johnstown | 2.9 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 5.0 | 7.1 | 9.5 | 7.3 |
| Lancaster | .9 | .6 | .9 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.1 |
| Philadelphia | 26.2 | 23.4 | 32.1 | 48.6 | 58.0 | 56.2 | 65.9 | 56.8 |
| Pittsburgh | 14.6 | 11.9 | 15.7 | 23.2 | 35.4 | 45.7 | 54.7 | 47.0 |
| Reading | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 3.8 |
| Scranton | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 6.8 | 6.7 |
| Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton | 5.0 | 4.9 | 6.3 | 6.6 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 10.5 | 11.5 |
| York | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.5 |
| Puerto Rico:[2] | | | | | | | | |
| Mayaguez | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.0 | .6 | .8 | (1) | ---------- |
| Ponce | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.3 | .9 | 1.0 | (1) | ---------- |
| San Juan | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 3.2 | 2.1 | 3.3 | (1) | ---------- |
| Rhode Island: | | | | | | | | |
| Providence-Pawtucket | 8.5 | 7.5 | 8.8 | 11.7 | 13.9 | 12.1 | 15.7 | 14.0 |
| South Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | .9 | .7 | .8 | .8 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.1 |
| Greenville | 1.5 | .8 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 1.3 |
| Tennessee: | | | | | | | | |
| Chattanooga | 1.4 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 3.5 |
| Knoxville | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 5.6 | 4.7 |
| Memphis | 3.1 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 4.8 |
| Nashville | 2.7 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 2.9 |
| Texas: | | | | | | | | |
| Austin | .3 | .4 | .5 | .6 | .7 | .6 | .8 | .7 |
| Beaumont-Port Arthur | 1.5 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.3 |
| Corpus Christi | .7 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 1.6 |
| Dallas | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 6.1 | 5.7 | 8.3 | 7.3 |
| El Paso | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.0 |
| Fort Worth | 1.1 | 1.4 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 3.5 |
| Houston | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 | 6.1 | 7.8 | 6.5 | 8.3 | 7.3 |
| San Antonio | 1.4 | 1.6 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 2.5 |
| Utah: | | | | | | | | |
| Salt Lake City | 3.6 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 2.6 |
| Virginia: | | | | | | | | |
| Newport News-Hampton | .6 | .5 | .6 | .6 | .6 | .6 | 1.0 | .8 |
| Norfolk-Portsmouth | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 2.3 | 2.2 |
| Richmond | .4 | .4 | .5 | .9 | 1.0 | .9 | 2.1 | 1.7 |
| Roanoke | .3 | .4 | .4 | .6 | .6 | .6 | 1.2 | 1.2 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D-9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967 | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Washington: | | | | | | | | |
| Seattle | 7.9 | 6.7 | 12.0 | 17.7 | 16.1 | 11.9 | 16.9 | 15.9 |
| Spokane | 2.7 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 4.0 |
| Tacoma | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 2.9 | 4.1 | 3.6 |
| West Virginia: | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 2.4 |
| Huntington-Ashland | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 3.5 |
| Wheeling | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 3.8 | 3.8 |
| Wisconsin: | | | | | | | | |
| Kenosha | 2.0 | 1.8 | .7 | 1.0 | .4 | .7 | 1.8 | .7 |
| Madison | .7 | .6 | .7 | .8 | .9 | .8 | 1.0 | .8 |
| Milwaukee | 5.9 | 4.2 | 5.4 | 7.8 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 15.3 | 8.7 |
| Racine | 1.3 | 1.1 | .8 | .9 | .8 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 1.3 |

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[1] Not available.

[2] Program effective January 1961; sugarcane workers are not included.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given area or for the same year among areas is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

## Table D-10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67

[Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment]

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama: | | | | | | | | |
| Birmingham | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 4.5 |
| Mobile | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 4.5 |
| Arizona: | | | | | | | | |
| Phoenix | 2.5 | 1.9 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 3.0 |
| Arkansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Little Rock-North Little Rock | .8 | .7 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 2.6 |
| California: | | | | | | | | |
| Fresno | 6.7 | 6.1 | 6.9 | 7.6 | 8.2 | 8.9 | 9.2 | 7.4 |
| Los Angeles-Long Beach | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 5.4 | 4.4 |
| Sacramento | 5.7 | 5.3 | 6.0 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 5.2 |
| San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario | 5.6 | 5.3 | 6.4 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.3 | 7.0 | 6.6 |
| San Diego | 4.0 | 4.5 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 6.3 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 5.6 |
| San Francisco-Oakland | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 4.0 |
| San Jose | 3.4 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 5.6 | 5.1 |
| Stockton | 8.3 | 6.5 | 7.7 | 8.2 | 8.6 | 9.7 | 9.5 | 8.8 |
| Colorado: | | | | | | | | |
| Denver | 1.0 | .9 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 1.8 |
| Connecticut: | | | | | | | | |
| Bridgeport | 2.1 | 1.7 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 5.2 | 5.2 |
| Hartford | 1.0 | .8 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 3.1 |
| New Britain | 1.8 | 1.5 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 6.5 | 5.4 |
| New Haven | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 3.8 |
| Stamford | 1.4 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 2.5 |
| Waterbury | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 4.1 | 6.2 | 5.6 |
| Delaware: | | | | | | | | |
| Wilmington | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 2.9 |
| District of Columbia: | | | | | | | | |
| Washington | .9 | .8 | 1.2 | 1.5 | .9 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.5 |
| Florida: | | | | | | | | |
| Jacksonville | 0.6 | .5 | .9 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 1.8 |
| Miami | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 3.5 |
| Tampa-St. Petersburg | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 5.0 | 3.8 |
| Georgia: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlanta | .9 | .6 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 3.2 | 2.6 |
| Augusta | 1.2 | .8 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 3.4 | 2.6 |
| Columbus | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.4 | 4.1 |
| Macon | .7 | .7 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 | 3.1 |
| Savannah | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 5.6 | 4.2 |
| Hawaii: | | | | | | | | |
| Honolulu | 2.2 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 1.9 |
| Illinois: | | | | | | | | |
| Chicago | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 4.0 | 2.6 |
| Davenport-Rock Island-Moline | 1.0 | .8 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 3.5 |
| Peoria | 1.4 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.8 | 3.9 |
| Rockford | 1.1 | .6 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 4.2 | 3.1 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Indiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Evansville | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 4.7 | 4.2 |
| Fort Wayne | .7 | .5 | .8 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 3.0 | 2.3 |
| Gary-Hammond-East Chicago | 1.1 | .9 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 3.3 |
| Indianapolis | .8 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 2.4 |
| South Bend | 1.4 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 5.6 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 7.2 | 4.2 |
| Terre Haute | 2.4 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 5.0 | 4.6 |
| Iowa: | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Rapids | .4 | .4 | .6 | .8 | .9 | 1.2 | 2.7 | 1.7 |
| Des Moines | .8 | .6 | .9 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.0 |
| Kansas: | | | | | | | | |
| Wichita | 1.0 | .8 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 3.4 |
| Kentucky: | | | | | | | | |
| Louisville | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.7 | 4.4 |
| Louisiana: | | | | | | | | |
| Baton Rouge | 2.0 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 5.9 | 5.3 |
| New Orleans | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 4.4 | 3.4 |
| Shreveport | 1.2 | 1.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 3.4 |
| Maine: | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.7 | 4.9 |
| Maryland: | | | | | | | | |
| Baltimore | 1.5 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 4.3 |
| Massachusetts: | | | | | | | | |
| Boston | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 3.5 |
| Brockton | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 6.5 | 8.2 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 7.8 |
| Fall River | 6.4 | 6.4 | 8.4 | 11.8 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 10.7 | 11.3 |
| Lawrence-Haverhill | 4.5 | 4.3 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 7.1 | 5.5 | 7.8 | 6.8 |
| Lowell | 5.3 | 4.9 | 7.1 | 8.3 | 8.4 | 7.6 | 9.1 | 9.4 |
| New Bedford | 6.1 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 7.6 | 8.1 | 6.9 | (2) | (2) |
| Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke | 3.1 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.9 | 5.7 |
| Worcester | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 4.6 | 6.0 | 4.8 |
| Michigan: | | | | | | | | |
| Battle Creek | 2.3 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.7 | .4 | 4.1 | 5.7 | 4.9 |
| Detroit | 2.4 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 8.1 | 4.9 |
| Flint | 3.4 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 7.7 | 2.7 |
| Grand Rapids | 2.1 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 3.5 |
| Kalamazoo | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.8 | 3.1 |
| Lansing | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.3 | 8.0 | 3.1 |
| Muskegon-Muskegon Heights | 2.5 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 6.1 | 5.4 |
| Saginaw | 2.6 | 1.0 | .9 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 6.5 | 3.2 |
| Minnesota: | | | | | | | | |
| Duluth-Superior | 3.2 | 2.6 | 3.8 | 5.0 | 6.3 | 6.1 | 6.5 | 6.0 |
| Minneapolis-St. Paul | .7 | .9 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 3.3 | 2.6 |
| Mississippi: | | | | | | | | |
| Jackson | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 2.4 |
| Missouri: | | | | | | | | |
| Kansas City | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 4.7 | 4.2 |
| St. Louis | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 3.6 |
| Nebraska: | | | | | | | | |
| Omaha | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 1.8 |
| New Hampshire: | | | | | | | | |
| Manchester | 1.3 | 1.0 | 2.6 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 4.2 | 5.8 | 5.2 |
| New Jersey: | | | | | | | | |
| Atlantic City | 4.8 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 8.1 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 10.1 | 10.4 |
| Jersey City | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 5.7 | (2) |
| Newark | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 4.6 |
| New Brunswick-Perth Amboy | 3.0 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 5.1 |
| Paterson-Clifton-Passaic | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 5.8 | 5.8 |
| Trenton | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 5.9 | 5.4 |
| New Mexico: | | | | | | | | |
| Albuquerque | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.7 | 3.3 |
| New York: | | | | | | | | |
| Albany-Schenectady-Troy | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 4.3 |
| Binghamton | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 3.4 |
| Buffalo | 2.5 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 6.9 | 5.2 |
| New York | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 |
| Rochester | 1.3 | 1.4 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 2.9 |
| Syracuse | 2.4 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.7 | 4.5 |
| Utica-Rome | 3.2 | 2.9 | 4.0 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 6.3 |
| North Carolina: | | | | | | | | |
| Asheville | 2.1 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 3.8 |
| Charlotte | 1.1 | .7 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| Durham | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 4.2 |
| Greensboro-High Point | .9 | .8 | 1.3 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 2.9 |
| Winston-Salem | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 2.7 |
| Ohio: | | | | | | | | |
| Akron | 1.1 | .9 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 5.1 | 3.5 |
| Canton | 1.5 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 4.3 | 5.2 | 6.2 | 5.1 |
| Cincinnati | 1.4 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.8 | 4.1 | 3.2 |
| Cleveland | 1.3 | 1.0 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 5.5 | 3.9 |
| Columbus | 1.0 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 2.9 |
| Dayton | .7 | .7 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 3.8 | 3.0 |
| Hamilton-Middletown | 2.3 | 1.7 | 2.8 | 4.0 | 5.5 | 6.3 | 7.0 | 5.8 |
| Lorain-Elyria | 2.9 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 6.3 | 6.1 |
| Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va | 2.2 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 4.2 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 4.7 |
| Toledo | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 6.7 | 4.0 |
| Youngstown-Warren | 2.2 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 4.6 | 7.1 | 7.3 | 6.5 |
| Oklahoma: | | | | | | | | |
| Oklahoma City | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 3.8 | 2.8 |
| Tulsa | 1.3 | 1.3 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 3.4 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–67—Continued

| Major labor area | 1967[1] | 1966 | 1965 | 1964 | 1963 | 1962 | 1961 | 1960 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Oregon:** | | | | | | | | |
| Portland | 2.2 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 5.2 | 4.0 |
| **Pennsylvania:** | | | | | | | | |
| Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 3.1 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 4.7 |
| Altoona | 3.1 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.9 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 7.2 | 6.2 |
| Erie | 2.2 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 6.7 |
| Harrisburg | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.6 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 3.9 |
| Johnstown | 4.6 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 5.9 | 8.7 | 12.1 | 15.3 | 11.2 |
| Lancaster | .8 | .6 | 1.0 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 3.1 | 2.8 |
| Philadelphia | 1.9 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 5.2 | 4.6 |
| Pittsburgh | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 5.6 | 7.1 | 8.4 | 6.9 |
| Reading | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 3.3 | 5.3 | 4.2 |
| Scranton | 3.9 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 7.0 | 9.2 | 8.8 | 10.3 | 10.1 |
| Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton | 4.7 | 4.9 | 6.6 | 7.4 | 9.3 | 9.6 | 11.6 | 12.0 |
| York | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 2.7 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 4.6 |
| **Puerto Rico:**[3] | | | | | | | | |
| Mayaguez | .3 | .3 | .3 | .3 | .2 | .2 | (2) | ---------- |
| Ponce | .3 | .3 | .4 | .4 | .3 | .3 | (2) | ---------- |
| San Juan | .9 | .7 | .8 | .8 | .7 | .9 | (2) | ---------- |
| **Rhode Island:** | | | | | | | | |
| Providence-Pawtucket | 2.8 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 6.0 | 4.7 |
| **South Carolina:** | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 4.1 | 2.8 |
| Greenville | 1.6 | .9 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 3.3 | 2.2 |
| **Tennessee:** | | | | | | | | |
| Chattanooga | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 5.3 | 4.9 |
| Knoxville | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 6.4 | 5.7 |
| Memphis | 1.4 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 3.7 |
| Nashville | 1.3 | .9 | 1.4 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| **Texas:** | | | | | | | | |
| Austin | .5 | .6 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.0 |
| Beaumont-Port Arthur | 1.8 | 1.3 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 4.1 |
| Corpus Christi | 1.2 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.9 | 3.7 |
| Dallas | .5 | .7 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| El Paso | 1.7 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 3.3 |
| Fort Worth | .6 | .7 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 2.5 |
| Houston | .5 | .7 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 2.1 |
| San Antonio | .8 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 1.9 |
| **Utah:** | | | | | | | | |
| Salt Lake City | 2.7 | 2.1 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 |
| **Virginia:** | | | | | | | | |
| Newport News-Hampton | 1.0 | .9 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 2.0 |
| Norfolk-Portsmouth | 1.2 | .9 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.7 | 2.5 |
| Richmond | 1.2 | .2 | .4 | .6 | .7 | .7 | 1.7 | 1.4 |
| Roanoke | .5 | .7 | .8 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 3.0 | 2.9 |
| **Washington:** | | | | | | | | |
| Seattle | 1.7 | 1.7 | 3.8 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 3.5 | 5.3 | 5.1 |
| Spokane | 4.1 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 7.1 | 11.0 | 6.7 |
| Tacoma | 2.8 | 2.9 | 4.6 | 5.8 | 5.8 | 5.3 | 7.5 | 6.5 |
| **West Virginia:** | | | | | | | | |
| Charleston | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 4.0 |
| Huntington-Ashland | 2.8 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 7.4 | 6.5 |
| Wheeling | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 6.1 | 6.9 | 9.1 | 8.5 |
| **Wisconsin:** | | | | | | | | |
| Kenosha | 3.7 | 4.0 | 2.6 | 3.2 | 1.2 | 2.6 | 7.0 | 2.2 |
| Madison | .9 | .9 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 1.9 |
| Milwaukee | 1.2 | .9 | 1.3 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 4.1 | 2.4 |
| Racine | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 5.6 | 3.8 |

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[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Not available.
[3] Program effective January 1961; sugarcane workers are not included.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given area or for the same year among areas is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

# Table D-11. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 20 Largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas by Color, and Selected Data for Age, Sex, and Central Cities: Annual Average, 1967

[Numbers in thousands]

| Area and item | | Civilian labor force [1] | Unemployment | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Estimated number | Number range [2] | Estimated rate | Rate range [2] |
| | NEW YORK | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 4,650 | 173 | 162-184 | 3.7 | 3.5- 3.9 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 2,800 | 82 | 75- 89 | 3.0 | 2.7- 3.3 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 1,600 | 55 | 49- 61 | 3.5 | 3.2- 3.8 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 300 | 35 | 29- 41 | 12.4 | 10.5-14.3 |
| | White | 4,050 | 142 | 132-152 | 3.5 | 3.3- 3.7 |
| | Nonwhite | 600 | 31 | 24- 38 | 5.2 | 4.1- 6.3 |
| Central city: | Total | 3,300 | 137 | 127-147 | 4.1 | 3.8- 4.4 |
| | White | 2,750 | 108 | 99-117 | 3.9 | 3.6- 4.2 |
| | Nonwhite | 550 | 29 | 22- 36 | 5.3 | 4.2- 6.4 |
| | LOS ANGELES-LONG BEACH | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 3,350 | 186 | 175-197 | 5.6 | 5.3- 5.9 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 2,000 | 84 | 77- 91 | 4.2 | 3.9- 4.5 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 1,100 | 60 | 54- 66 | 5.4 | 4.9- 5.9 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 250 | 41 | 35- 48 | 16.4 | 14.2-18.6 |
| | White | 3,000 | 157 | 147-167 | 5.3 | 5.0- 5.6 |
| | Nonwhite | 350 | 28 | 22- 34 | 8.0 | 6.4- 9.6 |
| Central city: | Total | 1,300 | 84 | 77- 91 | 6.6 | 6.1- 7.1 |
| | White | 1,050 | 62 | 56- 68 | 6.0 | 5.4- 6.6 |
| | Nonwhite | 250 | 22 | 16- 28 | 9.1 | 7.1-11.1 |
| | CHICAGO | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 2,800 | 93 | 85-101 | 3.3 | 3.0- 3.6 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 1,650 | 26 | 22- 30 | 1.6 | 1.5- 1.8 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 900 | 35 | 30- 40 | 3.8 | 3.3- 4.3 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 250 | 31 | 25- 37 | 12.9 | 10.8-15.0 |
| | White | 2,350 | 56 | 50- 62 | 2.4 | 2.1- 2.7 |
| | Nonwhite | 450 | 36 | 29- 43 | 8.3 | 6.9- 9.7 |
| Central city: | Total | 1,500 | 64 | 57- 71 | 4.3 | 3.9- 4.7 |
| | White | 1,100 | 31 | 27- 35 | 2.8 | 2.4- 3.2 |
| | Nonwhite | 400 | 33 | 26- 40 | 8.2 | 6.8- 9.6 |
| | PHILADELPHIA | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 1,900 | 70 | 63- 77 | 3.7 | 3.4- 4.0 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 1,150 | 24 | 20- 28 | 2.1 | 1.8- 2.4 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 600 | 22 | 18- 26 | 3.6 | 3.0- 4.2 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 150 | 24 | 19- 29 | 15.7 | 12.7-18.7 |
| | White | 1,550 | 44 | 39- 49 | 2.9 | 2.6- 3.2 |
| | Nonwhite | 350 | 26 | 20- 32 | 7.4 | 5.9- 8.9 |
| Central city: | Total | 850 | 37 | 32- 42 | 4.4 | 3.9- 4.9 |
| | White | 600 | 19 | 16- 22 | 3.2 | 2.7- 3.7 |
| | Nonwhite | 250 | 19 | 14- 24 | 7.5 | 5.7- 9.3 |
| | DETROIT | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 1,600 | 71 | 64- 78 | 4.5 | 4.1- 4.9 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 950 | 25 | 21- 29 | 2.6 | 2.3- 2.9 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 500 | 24 | 20- 28 | 5.0 | 4.2- 5.8 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 150 | 22 | 17- 27 | 15.5 | 12.5-18.5 |
| | White | 1,300 | 42 | 37- 47 | 3.2 | 2.8- 3.6 |
| | Nonwhite | 250 | 29 | 22- 36 | 10.9 | 9.0-12.8 |
| Central city: | Total | 650 | 35 | 30- 40 | 5.2 | 4.5- 5.9 |
| | White | 450 | 13 | 10- 16 | 2.9 | 2.3- 3.5 |
| | Nonwhite | 200 | 22 | 16- 28 | 9.8 | 7.7-11.9 |
| | SAN FRANCISCO-OAKLAND | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 1,350 | 72 | 65- 79 | 5.4 | 4.9- 5.9 |
| | Men, 20 years and over | 750 | 26 | 22- 30 | 3.4 | 2.9- 3.9 |
| | Women, 20 years and over | 500 | 29 | 25- 34 | 6.1 | 5.3- 6.9 |
| | Both sexes, 16 to 19 years | 100 | 17 | 13- 21 | 19.6 | 15.5-23.8 |
| | White | 1,150 | 53 | 47- 59 | 4.7 | 4.2- 5.2 |
| | Nonwhite | 200 | 19 | 14- 24 | 9.6 | 7.4-11.8 |
| Central city: | Total | 500 | 30 | 26- 34 | 6.3 | 5.5- 7.1 |
| | White | 350 | 16 | 13- 19 | 4.9 | 4.0- 5.8 |
| | Nonwhite | 150 | 14 | 10- 18 | 9.6 | 7.0-12.2 |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–11. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 20 Largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas by Color, and Selected Data for Age, Sex, and Central Cities: Annual Average, 1967—Continued

| Area and item | | Civilian labor force [1] | Unemployment | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Estimated number | Number range [2] | Estimated rate | Rate range [2] |
| | **Boston** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 1,100 | 32 | 27- 37 | 2.9 | 2.5- 3.3 |
| | White | 1,050 | 30 | 26- 34 | 2.8 | 2.4- 3.2 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------- | (3) | ---------- |
| | **Washington, D.C.** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 1,050 | 24 | 20- 28 | 2.3 | 1.9- 2.7 |
| | White | 800 | 15 | 12- 18 | 2.0 | 1.6- 2.4 |
| | Nonwhite | 250 | 9 | 5- 13 | 3.2 | 1.9- 4.5 |
| Central city: | Total | 350 | 8 | 5- 11 | 2.1 | 1.5- 2.7 |
| | White | 100 | (3) | ---------- | (3) | ---------- |
| | Nonwhite | 250 | 7 | 3- 11 | 2.8 | 1.4- 4.2 |
| | **Pittsburgh** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 900 | 44 | 39- 49 | 4.8 | 4.3- 5.3 |
| | White | 850 | 36 | 31- 41 | 4.2 | 3.7- 4.7 |
| | Nonwhite | 50 | 8 | 5- 11 | 12.7 | 9.0-16.4 |
| | **St. Louis** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 900 | 39 | 34- 44 | 4.4 | 3.9- 4.9 |
| | White | 750 | 21 | 17- 25 | 2.9 | 2.4- 3.4 |
| | Nonwhite | 150 | 18 | 13- 23 | 12.3 | 9.6-15.0 |
| Central city: | Total | 300 | 18 | 15- 21 | 6.6 | 5.5- 7.7 |
| | White | 150 | 6 | 4- 8 | 3.5 | 2.4- 4.6 |
| | Nonwhite | 100 | 13 | 9- 17 | 11.3 | 8.0-14.6 |
| | **Newark** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 800 | 36 | 31- 41 | 4.5 | 3.9- 5.1 |
| | White | 650 | 24 | 20- 28 | 3.5 | 2.9- 4.1 |
| | Nonwhite | 100 | 12 | 8- 16 | 9.8 | 7.0-12.6 |
| | **Cleveland** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 750 | 29 | 24- 34 | 3.8 | 3.3- 4.3 |
| | White | 650 | 18 | 14- 22 | 2.8 | 2.3- 3.3 |
| | Nonwhite | 100 | 11 | 7- 15 | 8.8 | 6.1-11.5 |
| Central city: | Total | 250 | 15 | 12- 18 | 5.8 | 4.7- 6.9 |
| | White | 150 | 6 | 4- 8 | 3.4 | 2.4- 4.4 |
| | Nonwhite | 100 | 10 | 6- 14 | 10.1 | 6.8-13.4 |
| | **Baltimore** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 750 | 28 | 24- 32 | 3.7 | 3.2- 4.2 |
| | White | 550 | 12 | 9- 15 | 2.2 | 1.7- 2.7 |
| | Nonwhite | 200 | 15 | 10- 20 | 7.6 | 5.6- 9.6 |
| Central city: | Total | 400 | 21 | 17- 25 | 5.5 | 4.6- 6.4 |
| | White | 200 | 7 | 5- 9 | 3.3 | 2.3- 4.3 |
| | Nonwhite | 200 | 14 | 10- 18 | 8.0 | 5.9-10.1 |
| | **Minneapolis-St. Paul** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total [4] | 650 | 15 | 12- 18 | 2.2 | 1.8- 2.6 |
| Central city: | Total [4] | 300 | 8 | 6- 10 | 2.6 | 2.0- 3.2 |
| | **Houston** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 650 | 22 | 18- 26 | 3.3 | 2.7- 3.9 |
| | White | 500 | 13 | 10- 16 | 2.4 | 1.8- 3.0 |
| | Nonwhite | 150 | 9 | 5- 13 | 6.3 | 3.8- 8.8 |
| Central city: | Total | 550 | 20 | 16- 24 | 3.7 | 3.0- 4.4 |
| | White | 400 | 11 | 8- 14 | 2.7 | 2.0- 3.4 |
| | Nonwhite | 150 | 9 | 5- 13 | 6.3 | 3.8- 8.8 |
| | **Dallas** | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 600 | 15 | 12- 18 | 2.5 | 2.0- 3.0 |
| | White | 500 | 11 | 8- 14 | 2.1 | 1.6- 2.6 |
| | Nonwhite | 100 | (3) | ---------- | (3) | ---------- |
| Central city: | Total | 400 | 10 | 8- 13 | 2.5 | 1.9- 3.1 |
| | White | 300 | 6 | 4- 8 | 2.1 | 1.5- 2.7 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------- | (3) | ---------- |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table D–11. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 20 Largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas by Color, and Selected Data for Age, Sex, and Central Cities: Annual Average, 1967—Continued

| Area and item | | Civilian labor force [1] | Unemployment | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Estimated number | Number range [2] | Estimated rate | Rate range [2] |
| | PATERSON-CLIFTON-PASSAIC | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 550 | 15 | 12- 18 | 2.8 | 2.2- 3.4 |
| | White | 500 | 13 | 10- 16 | 2.6 | 2.0- 3.2 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------------- | (3) | ---------------- |
| | BUFFALO | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 500 | 23 | 19- 27 | 4.2 | 3.5- 4.9 |
| | White | 500 | 18 | 15- 21 | 3.7 | 3.1- 4.3 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------------- | (3) | ---------------- |
| | MILWAUKEE | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 500 | 16 | 13- 19 | 3.0 | 2.4- 3.6 |
| | White | 450 | 12 | 9- 15 | 2.6 | 2.0- 3.2 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------------- | (3) | ---------------- |
| Central city: | Total | 300 | 13 | 10- 16 | 4.0 | 3.2- 4.8 |
| | White | 250 | 9 | 7- 11 | 3.5 | 2.6- 4.5 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------------- | (3) | ---------------- |
| | CINCINNATI | | | | | |
| SMSA: | Total | 450 | 13 | 10- 16 | 2.8 | 2.1- 3.5 |
| | White | 400 | 9 | 6- 12 | 2.3 | 1.6- 3.0 |
| | Nonwhite | (3) | (3) | ---------------- | (3) | ---------------- |

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[1] Rounded to the nearest 50,000.

[2] Chances are 9 out of 10 that unemployment data from a complete census (see sample source below) would fall within the indicated range.

[3] Not shown separately where the unemployment estimate is less than 5,000 or the labor force is less than 50,000.

[4] No color break shown because the population and labor force are almost entirely white.

SOURCE: Based on the Current Population Survey, a national sample survey of households conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. (The CPS is also the source of the data shown in sections A and B of the statistical appendix.) These data differ from the Bureau of Employment Security's unemployment levels and rates for the same areas published in preceding tables in this section for many reasons; there are differences in sources of information (the BES data are based on payroll and unemployment insurance records), in area definitions (the BLS data are based on 1960 definitions), and in estimating procedures.

## Table E–1. Estimates and Projections of the Total Population, by Age, 1950 to 1990[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

| Age | Estimates | | | Projections | | | Number change | | | | Percent change | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1950 | 1960 | 1967 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 1950-60 | 1960-70 | 1970-80 | 1980-90 | 1950-60 | 1960-70 | 1970-80 | 1980-90 |
| Total | 152,271 | 180,684 | 199,118 | 207,326 | 243,291 | 286,501 | 28,413 | 26,642 | 35,965 | 43,210 | 18.7 | 14.7 | 17.3 | 17.8 |
| Under 16 years | 43,131 | 58,868 | 63,678 | 65,300 | 76,737 | 95,433 | 15,737 | 6,432 | 11,437 | 18,696 | 36.5 | 10.9 | 17.5 | 24.4 |
| Under 5 years | 16,410 | 20,364 | 19,191 | 20,027 | 27,972 | 31,493 | 3,954 | −337 | 7,945 | 3,521 | 24.1 | −1.7 | 39.7 | 12.6 |
| 5 to 15 years | 26,721 | 38,504 | 44,486 | 45,273 | 48,765 | 63,940 | 11,783 | 6,769 | 3,492 | 15,175 | 44.1 | 17.6 | 7.7 | 31.1 |
| 16 years and over | 109,141 | 121,814 | 135,440 | 142,025 | 166,552 | 191,068 | 12,673 | 20,211 | 24,527 | 24,516 | 11.6 | 16.6 | 17.3 | 14.7 |
| 16 to 24 years | 20,222 | 21,814 | 29,373 | 32,347 | 37,937 | 40,180 | 1,592 | 10,533 | 5,590 | 2,243 | 7.9 | 48.3 | 17.3 | 5.9 |
| 16 to 19 years | 8,542 | 10,698 | 14,176 | 15,086 | 16,940 | 19,512 | 2,156 | 4,388 | 1,854 | 2,572 | 25.2 | 41.0 | 12.3 | 15.2 |
| 20 to 24 years | 11,680 | 11,116 | 15,197 | 17,261 | 20,997 | 20,668 | −564 | 6,145 | 3,736 | −329 | −4.8 | 55.3 | 21.6 | −1.6 |
| 25 to 44 years | 45,673 | 47,134 | 47,077 | 48,276 | 62,373 | 79,313 | 1,461 | 1,142 | 14,097 | 16,940 | 3.2 | 2.4 | 29.2 | 27.2 |
| 25 to 34 years | 24,036 | 22,911 | 23,092 | 25,315 | 36,997 | 42,449 | −1,125 | 2,404 | 11,682 | 5,452 | −4.7 | 10.5 | 46.1 | 14.7 |
| 35 to 44 years | 21,637 | 24,223 | 23,984 | 22,961 | 25,376 | 36,864 | 2,586 | −1,262 | 2,415 | 11,488 | 12.0 | −5.2 | 10.5 | 45.3 |
| 45 to 64 years | 30,849 | 36,208 | 40,194 | 41,817 | 43,179 | 44,570 | 5,359 | 5,609 | 1,362 | 1,391 | 17.4 | 15.5 | 3.3 | 3.2 |
| 45 to 54 years | 17,453 | 20,581 | 22,621 | 23,326 | 22,147 | 24,542 | 3,128 | 2,745 | −1,179 | 2,395 | 17.9 | 13.3 | −5.1 | 10.8 |
| 55 to 64 years | 13,396 | 15,627 | 17,573 | 18,491 | 21,032 | 20,028 | 2,231 | 2,864 | 2,541 | −1,004 | 16.7 | 18.3 | 13.7 | −4.8 |
| 65 years and over | 12,397 | 16,658 | 18,796 | 19,585 | 23,063 | 27,005 | 4,261 | 2,927 | 3,478 | 3,942 | 34.4 | 17.6 | 17.8 | 17.1 |

[1] Data relate to July 1 and include the Armed Forces abroad. Alaska and Hawaii are also included beginning 1960.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1950 data, No. 311; for 1967 data, No. 385; for other years, No. 381, Series B.

## Table E–2. Total Population,[1] Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Sex and age | Total population, July 1 | | | | | Total labor force, annual averages | | | | | Labor force participation rates, annual averages (percent) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | | Projected | | | Actual | | Projected | | | Actual | | Projected | | |
| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 121,817 | 131,184 | 141,713 | 153,627 | 165,473 | 72,104 | 77,177 | 84,617 | 92,183 | 99,942 | 59.2 | 58.8 | 59.7 | 60.0 | 60.4 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 59,420 | 63,606 | 68,485 | 74,127 | 79,824 | 48,933 | 50,946 | 54,960 | 59,356 | 64,061 | 82.4 | 80.1 | 80.3 | 80.1 | 80.3 |
| 16 to 19 years | 5,398 | 6,880 | 7,587 | 8,302 | 8,510 | 3,162 | 3,831 | 4,280 | 4,664 | 4,824 | 58.6 | 55.7 | 56.4 | 56.2 | 56.7 |
| 20 to 24 years | 5,553 | 6,872 | 8,621 | 9,609 | 10,394 | 4,939 | 5,926 | 7,466 | 8,331 | 9,064 | 88.9 | 86.2 | 86.6 | 86.7 | 87.2 |
| 25 to 34 years | 11,347 | 11,091 | 12,540 | 15,557 | 18,285 | 10,940 | 10,653 | 12,063 | 14,966 | 17,590 | 96.4 | 96.0 | 96.2 | 96.2 | 96.2 |
| 35 to 44 years | 11,878 | 11,962 | 11,303 | 11,068 | 12,496 | 11,454 | 11,504 | 10,930 | 10,703 | 12,084 | 96.4 | 96.2 | 96.7 | 96.7 | 96.7 |
| 45 to 54 years | 10,148 | 10,740 | 11,289 | 11,379 | 10,757 | 9,568 | 10,131 | 10,725 | 10,810 | 10,219 | 94.3 | 94.3 | 95.0 | 95.0 | 95.0 |
| 55 to 64 years | 7,564 | 8,131 | 8,759 | 9,287 | 9,776 | 6,445 | 6,768 | 7,388 | 7,795 | 8,184 | 85.2 | 83.2 | 84.3 | 83.9 | 83.7 |
| 55 to 59 years | 4,144 | 4,421 | 4,794 | 4,990 | 5,296 | 3,727 | 3,929 | 4,339 | 4,516 | 4,793 | 89.9 | 88.9 | 90.5 | 90.5 | 90.5 |
| 60 to 64 years | 3,420 | 3,710 | 3,965 | 4,297 | 4,480 | 2,718 | 2,839 | 3,049 | 3,279 | 3,391 | 79.5 | 76.5 | 76.9 | 76.3 | 75.7 |
| 65 years and over | 7,530 | 7,932 | 8,385 | 8,923 | 9,606 | 2,425 | 2,131 | 2,108 | 2,067 | 2,096 | 32.2 | 26.9 | 25.1 | 23.4 | 21.8 |
| 65 to 69 years | 2,941 | 2,871 | 3,137 | 3,362 | 3,651 | 1,348 | 1,209 | 1,142 | 1,136 | 1,143 | 45.8 | 42.1 | 36.4 | 33.8 | 31.3 |
| 70 years and over | 4,590 | 5,061 | 5,248 | 5,561 | 5,955 | 1,077 | 922 | 966 | 951 | 953 | 23.5 | 18.2 | 18.4 | 17.1 | 16.0 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 62,397 | 67,578 | 73,228 | 79,500 | 85,649 | 23,171 | 26,232 | 29,657 | 32,827 | 35,881 | 37.1 | 38.8 | 40.5 | 41.3 | 41.9 |
| 16 to 19 years | 5,275 | 6,681 | 7,375 | 8,081 | 8,221 | 2,061 | 2,519 | 2,908 | 3,201 | 3,286 | 39.1 | 37.7 | 39.4 | 39.6 | 40.0 |
| 20 to 24 years | 5,547 | 6,796 | 8,483 | 9,446 | 10,230 | 2,558 | 3,375 | 4,267 | 4,865 | 5,380 | 46.1 | 49.7 | 50.3 | 51.5 | 52.6 |
| 25 to 34 years | 11,605 | 11,267 | 12,680 | 15,582 | 18,232 | 4,159 | 4,336 | 4,894 | 6,124 | 7,347 | 35.8 | 38.5 | 38.6 | 39.3 | 40.3 |
| 35 to 44 years | 12,348 | 12,470 | 11,694 | 11,391 | 12,771 | 5,325 | 5,724 | 5,555 | 5,582 | 6,386 | 43.1 | 45.9 | 47.5 | 49.0 | 50.0 |
| 45 to 54 years | 10,438 | 11,304 | 12,071 | 12,195 | 11,437 | 5,150 | 5,714 | 6,675 | 7,024 | 6,805 | 49.3 | 50.5 | 55.3 | 57.6 | 59.5 |
| 55 to 64 years | 8,070 | 8,835 | 9,741 | 10,558 | 11,279 | 2,964 | 3,587 | 4,267 | 4,826 | 5,337 | 36.7 | 40.6 | 43.8 | 45.7 | 47.3 |
| 55 to 59 years | 4,321 | 4,736 | 5,252 | 5,577 | 5,983 | 1,803 | 2,209 | 2,705 | 3,023 | 3,362 | 41.7 | 46.6 | 51.5 | 54.2 | 56.2 |
| 60 to 64 years | 3,749 | 4,099 | 4,489 | 4,981 | 5,296 | 1,161 | 1,378 | 1,562 | 1,803 | 1,975 | 31.0 | 33.6 | 34.8 | 36.2 | 37.3 |
| 65 years and over | 9,115 | 10,225 | 11,186 | 12,248 | 13,481 | 954 | 976 | 1,091 | 1,205 | 1,340 | 10.5 | 9.5 | 9.8 | 9.8 | 9.9 |
| 65 to 69 years | 3,347 | 3,427 | 3,755 | 4,122 | 4,580 | 579 | 585 | 653 | 717 | 797 | 17.3 | 17.1 | 17.4 | 17.4 | 17.4 |
| 70 years and over | 5,768 | 6,798 | 7,431 | 8,126 | 8,901 | 375 | 391 | 438 | 488 | 543 | 6.5 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.1 |

[1] These population data (and those in table E–4) differ from the figures shown in the preceding table and elsewhere in this report because they are based on earlier population estimates and projections.

SOURCE: Population data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1960, No. 241; for 1965, unpublished estimates; for 1970–80, No. 286, Series B. All other data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

## Table E–3. Changes in the Total Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1950 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Sex and age | Actual | | Projected | | Number change | | | Percent change | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1950–60 | 1960–70 | 1970–80 | 1950–60 | 1960–70 | 1970–80 |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 63,858 | 72,104 | 84,617 | 99,942 | 8,246 | 12,513 | 15,325 | 12.9 | 17.4 | 18.1 |
| 16 to 24 years | 12,440 | 12,720 | 18,921 | 22,554 | 273 | 6,208 | 3,633 | 2.2 | 48.8 | 19.2 |
| 25 to 44 years | 29,263 | 31,878 | 33,442 | 43,407 | 2,615 | 1,564 | 9,965 | 8.9 | 4.9 | 29.8 |
| 25 to 34 years | 15,145 | 15,099 | 16,957 | 24,937 | −46 | 1,858 | 7,980 | −.3 | 12.3 | 47.1 |
| 35 to 44 years | 14,118 | 16,779 | 16,485 | 18,470 | 2,661 | −294 | 1,985 | 18.8 | −1.8 | 12.0 |
| 45 years and over | 22,156 | 27,506 | 32,254 | 33,981 | 5,350 | 4,748 | 1,727 | 24.1 | 17.3 | 5.4 |
| 45 to 64 years | 19,119 | 24,127 | 29,055 | 30,545 | 5,008 | 4,928 | 1,490 | 26.2 | 20.4 | 5.1 |
| 65 years and over | 3,037 | 3,379 | 3,199 | 3,436 | 342 | −180 | 237 | 11.3 | −5.3 | 7.4 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 45,446 | 48,933 | 54,960 | 64,061 | 3,487 | 6,027 | 9,101 | 7.7 | 12.3 | 16.6 |
| 16 to 24 years | 8,045 | 8,101 | 11,746 | 13,888 | 49 | 3,652 | 2,142 | .6 | 45.1 | 18.2 |
| 25 to 44 years | 20,996 | 22,394 | 22,993 | 29,674 | 1,398 | 599 | 6,681 | 6.7 | 2.7 | 29.1 |
| 25 to 34 years | 11,044 | 10,940 | 12,063 | 17,590 | −104 | 1,123 | 5,527 | −.9 | 10.3 | 45.8 |
| 35 to 44 years | 9,952 | 11,454 | 10,930 | 12,084 | 1,502 | −524 | 1,154 | 15.1 | −4.6 | 10.6 |
| 45 years and over | 16,405 | 18,438 | 20,221 | 20,499 | 2,033 | 1,783 | 278 | 12.4 | 9.7 | 1.4 |
| 45 to 64 years | 13,952 | 16,013 | 18,113 | 18,403 | 2,061 | 2,100 | 290 | 14.8 | 13.1 | 1.6 |
| 65 years and over | 2,453 | 2,425 | 2,108 | 2,096 | −28 | −317 | −12 | −1.1 | −13.1 | −.6 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 18,412 | 23,171 | 29,657 | 35,881 | 4,759 | 6,486 | 6,224 | 25.8 | 28.0 | 21.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 4,395 | 4,619 | 7,175 | 8,666 | 224 | 2,556 | 1,491 | 5.1 | 55.3 | 20.8 |
| 25 to 44 years | 8,267 | 9,484 | 10,449 | 13,733 | 1,217 | 965 | 3,284 | 14.7 | 10.2 | 31.4 |
| 25 to 34 years | 4,101 | 4,159 | 4,894 | 7,347 | 58 | 735 | 2,453 | 1.4 | 17.7 | 50.1 |
| 35 to 44 years | 4,166 | 5,325 | 5,555 | 6,386 | 1,159 | 230 | 831 | 27.8 | 4.3 | 15.0 |
| 45 years and over | 5,751 | 9,068 | 12,033 | 13,482 | 3,317 | 2,965 | 1,449 | 57.7 | 32.7 | 12.0 |
| 45 to 64 years | 5,167 | 8,114 | 10,942 | 12,142 | 2,947 | 2,828 | 1,200 | 57.0 | 34.9 | 11.0 |
| 65 years and over | 584 | 954 | 1,091 | 1,340 | 370 | 137 | 249 | 63.4 | 14.4 | 22.8 |

## Table E–4. Total Population, Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Color, Sex and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Color, sex, and age | Total population, July 1 | | | | | Total labor force, annual averages | | | | | Labor force participation rates, annual averages (percent) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | | Projected | | | Actual | | Projected | | | Actual | | Projected | | |
| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 |
| TOTAL | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 121,817 | 131,184 | 141,713 | 153,627 | 165,473 | 72,104 | 77,177 | 84,617 | 92,183 | 99,942 | 59.2 | 58.8 | 59.7 | 60.0 | 60.4 |
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Both sexes* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 109,279 | 117,406 | 126,395 | 136,412 | 146,141 | 64,210 | 68,627 | 75,055 | 81,436 | 87,872 | 58.8 | 58.5 | 59.4 | 59.7 | 60.1 |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 53,408 | 57,039 | 61,215 | 65,966 | 70,654 | 44,119 | 45,862 | 49,263 | 52,946 | 56,822 | 82.6 | 80.4 | 80.5 | 80.3 | 80.4 |
| 16 to 19 years | 4,763 | 6,040 | 6,583 | 7,155 | 7,235 | 2,801 | 3,398 | 3,728 | 4,033 | 4,122 | 58.8 | 56.3 | 56.6 | 56.4 | 57.0 |
| 20 to 24 years | 4,905 | 6,062 | 7,599 | 8,370 | 8,998 | 4,370 | 5,223 | 6,592 | 7,278 | 7,876 | 89.1 | 86.2 | 86.7 | 87.0 | 87.5 |
| 25 to 34 years | 10,092 | 9,833 | 11,074 | 13,720 | 16,000 | 9,777 | 9,503 | 10,711 | 13,269 | 15,474 | 96.9 | 96.6 | 96.7 | 96.7 | 96.7 |
| 35 to 44 years | 10,675 | 10,723 | 10,111 | 9,843 | 11,082 | 10,346 | 10,379 | 9,821 | 9,561 | 10,763 | 96.9 | 96.8 | 97.1 | 97.1 | 97.1 |
| 45 to 54 years | 9,166 | 9,709 | 10,194 | 10,252 | 9,662 | 8,690 | 9,209 | 9,725 | 9,772 | 9,205 | 94.8 | 94.8 | 95.4 | 95.3 | 95.3 |
| 55 to 64 years | 6,874 | 7,382 | 7,965 | 8,450 | 8,882 | 5,892 | 6,192 | 6,749 | 7,116 | 7,455 | 85.7 | 83.9 | 84.7 | 84.2 | 83.9 |
| 65 years and over | 6,933 | 7,290 | 7,689 | 8,176 | 8,795 | 2,243 | 1,958 | 1,937 | 1,917 | 1,927 | 32.4 | 26.9 | 25.2 | 23.4 | 21.9 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 55,871 | 60,367 | 65,180 | 70,446 | 75,487 | 20,091 | 22,765 | 25,792 | 28,490 | 31,050 | 36.0 | 37.7 | 39.6 | 40.4 | 41.1 |
| 16 to 19 years | 4,630 | 5,839 | 6,344 | 6,905 | 6,923 | 1,853 | 2,273 | 2,551 | 2,767 | 2,792 | 40.0 | 38.9 | 40.2 | 40.1 | 40.3 |
| 20 to 24 years | 4,842 | 5,964 | 7,402 | 8,133 | 8,750 | 2,215 | 2,920 | 3,695 | 4,174 | 4,604 | 45.7 | 49.0 | 49.9 | 51.3 | 52.6 |
| 25 to 34 years | 10,172 | 9,850 | 11,131 | 13,664 | 15,835 | 3,451 | 3,575 | 4,084 | 5,148 | 6,155 | 33.9 | 36.3 | 36.7 | 37.7 | 38.9 |
| 35 to 44 years | 11,017 | 11,047 | 10,285 | 9,996 | 11,249 | 4,537 | 4,880 | 4,744 | 4,779 | 5,510 | 41.2 | 44.2 | 46.1 | 47.8 | 49.0 |
| 45 to 54 years | 9,404 | 10,163 | 10,824 | 10,865 | 10,114 | 4,532 | 5,034 | 5,891 | 6,178 | 5,960 | 48.2 | 49.5 | 54.4 | 56.9 | 58.9 |
| 55 to 64 years | 7,357 | 8,040 | 8,856 | 9,577 | 10,200 | 2,633 | 3,203 | 3,833 | 4,342 | 4,802 | 35.8 | 39.8 | 43.3 | 45.3 | 47.1 |
| 65 years and over | 8,449 | 9,465 | 10,338 | 11,306 | 12,416 | 870 | 879 | 994 | 1,102 | 1,227 | 10.3 | 9.3 | 9.6 | 9.7 | 9.9 |
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Both sexes* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 12,538 | 13,779 | 15,319 | 17,215 | 19,334 | 7,894 | 8,551 | 9,560 | 10,746 | 12,072 | 63.0 | 62.1 | 62.4 | 62.4 | 62.4 |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 6,011 | 6,569 | 7,269 | 8,160 | 9,170 | 4,814 | 5,084 | 5,695 | 6,409 | 7,241 | 80.1 | 77.4 | 78.3 | 78.5 | 79.0 |
| 16 to 19 years | 635 | 841 | 1,004 | 1,148 | 1,275 | 361 | 435 | 552 | 631 | 702 | 56.8 | 51.7 | 55.0 | 55.0 | 55.1 |
| 20 to 24 years | 648 | 810 | 1,022 | 1,239 | 1,396 | 569 | 702 | 874 | 1,053 | 1,189 | 87.8 | 86.7 | 85.5 | 85.0 | 85.2 |
| 25 to 34 years | 1,255 | 1,258 | 1,466 | 1,837 | 2,285 | 1,163 | 1,150 | 1,351 | 1,697 | 2,116 | 92.7 | 91.4 | 92.2 | 92.4 | 92.6 |
| 35 to 44 years | 1,203 | 1,239 | 1,192 | 1,225 | 1,414 | 1,108 | 1,126 | 1,109 | 1,142 | 1,321 | 92.1 | 90.9 | 93.0 | 93.2 | 93.4 |
| 45 to 54 years | 982 | 1,031 | 1,095 | 1,127 | 1,095 | 878 | 923 | 999 | 1,037 | 1,014 | 89.4 | 89.5 | 91.2 | 92.0 | 92.6 |
| 55 to 64 years | 690 | 749 | 794 | 837 | 894 | 553 | 575 | 639 | 679 | 730 | 80.1 | 76.8 | 80.5 | 81.1 | 81.7 |
| 65 years and over | 598 | 641 | 696 | 747 | 811 | 182 | 173 | 171 | 170 | 169 | 30.4 | 27.0 | 24.6 | 22.8 | 20.8 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 6,527 | 7,212 | 8,050 | 9,055 | 10,164 | 3,080 | 3,467 | 3,865 | 4,337 | 4,831 | 47.2 | 48.1 | 48.0 | 47.9 | 47.5 |
| 16 to 19 years | 645 | 843 | 1,031 | 1,176 | 1,298 | 208 | 247 | 357 | 434 | 494 | 32.2 | 29.3 | 34.6 | 36.9 | 38.1 |
| 20 to 24 years | 705 | 832 | 1,061 | 1,313 | 1,480 | 343 | 455 | 572 | 691 | 776 | 48.7 | 54.7 | 52.9 | 52.6 | 52.4 |
| 25 to 34 years | 1,433 | 1,418 | 1,549 | 1,918 | 2,397 | 708 | 762 | 810 | 976 | 1,192 | 49.4 | 53.7 | 52.3 | 50.9 | 49.7 |
| 35 to 44 years | 1,331 | 1,423 | 1,409 | 1,395 | 1,522 | 788 | 844 | 811 | 803 | 876 | 59.2 | 59.3 | 57.6 | 57.6 | 57.6 |
| 45 to 54 years | 1,034 | 1,141 | 1,247 | 1,330 | 1,323 | 618 | 680 | 784 | 846 | 845 | 59.8 | 59.6 | 62.9 | 63.6 | 63.9 |
| 55 to 64 years | 713 | 795 | 885 | 981 | 1,079 | 331 | 383 | 434 | 484 | 535 | 46.4 | 48.2 | 49.0 | 49.3 | 49.6 |
| 65 years and over | 666 | 760 | 848 | 942 | 1,065 | 84 | 96 | 97 | 103 | 113 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 11.4 | 10.9 | 10.6 |

SOURCE: Population data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, including unpublished projections by color which are consistent with the projections for the total population published in Current Population Reports, Series P–25, No. 286, Series B. All other data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

## Table E–5. Changes in the Total Labor Force, by Color, Sex, and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Color, sex, and age | Actual | | Projected | | | Number change | | | | Percent change | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1960–65 | 1965–70 | 1970–75 | 1975–80 | 1960–65 | 1965–70 | 1970–75 | 1975–80 |
| TOTAL | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 72,104 | 77,177 | 84,617 | 92,183 | 99,942 | 5,073 | 7,440 | 7,566 | 7,759 | 7.0 | 9.6 | 8.9 | 8.4 |
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Both sexes* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 64,210 | 68,627 | 75,055 | 81,436 | 87,872 | 4,417 | 6,428 | 6,381 | 6,436 | 6.9 | 9.4 | 8.5 | 7.9 |
| 16 to 24 years | 11,239 | 13,814 | 16,566 | 18,252 | 19,394 | 2,575 | 2,752 | 1,686 | 1,142 | 22.9 | 19.9 | 10.2 | 6.3 |
| 25 to 44 years | 28,111 | 28,337 | 29,360 | 32,757 | 37,902 | 226 | 1,023 | 3,397 | 5,145 | .8 | 3.6 | 11.6 | 15.7 |
| 45 years and over | 24,860 | 26,475 | 29,129 | 30,427 | 30,576 | 1,615 | 2,654 | 1,298 | 149 | 6.5 | 10.0 | 4.5 | .5 |
| 45 to 64 years | 21,747 | 23,638 | 26,198 | 27,408 | 27,422 | 1,891 | 2,560 | 1,210 | 14 | 8.7 | 10.8 | 4.6 | .1 |
| 65 years and over | 3,113 | 2,837 | 2,931 | 3,019 | 3,154 | −276 | 94 | 88 | 135 | −8.9 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 44,119 | 45,862 | 49,263 | 52,946 | 56,822 | 1,743 | 3,401 | 3,683 | 3,876 | 4.0 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 7.3 |
| 16 to 24 years | 7,171 | 8,621 | 10,320 | 11,311 | 11,998 | 1,450 | 1,699 | 991 | 687 | 20.2 | 19.7 | 9.6 | 6.1 |
| 25 to 44 years | 20,123 | 19,882 | 20,532 | 22,830 | 26,237 | −241 | 650 | 2,298 | 3,407 | −1.2 | 3.3 | 11.2 | 14.9 |
| 45 years and over | 16,825 | 17,359 | 18,411 | 18,805 | 18,587 | 534 | 1,052 | 394 | −218 | 3.2 | 6.1 | 2.1 | −1.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 14,582 | 15,401 | 16,474 | 16,888 | 16,660 | 819 | 1,073 | 414 | −228 | 5.6 | 7.0 | 2.5 | −1.4 |
| 65 years and over | 2,243 | 1,958 | 1,937 | 1,917 | 1,927 | −285 | −21 | −20 | 10 | −12.7 | −1.1 | −1.0 | .5 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 20,091 | 22,765 | 25,792 | 28,490 | 31,050 | 2,674 | 3,027 | 2,698 | 2,560 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 10.5 | 9.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 4,068 | 5,193 | 6,246 | 6,941 | 7,396 | 1,125 | 1,053 | 695 | 455 | 27.7 | 20.3 | 11.1 | 6.6 |
| 25 to 44 years | 7,988 | 8,455 | 8,828 | 9,927 | 11,665 | 467 | 373 | 1,099 | 1,738 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 12.4 | 17.5 |
| 45 years and over | 8,035 | 9,116 | 10,718 | 11,622 | 11,989 | 1,081 | 1,602 | 904 | 367 | 13.5 | 17.6 | 8.4 | 3.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 7,165 | 8,237 | 9,724 | 10,520 | 10,762 | 1,072 | 1,487 | 796 | 242 | 15.0 | 18.1 | 8.2 | 2.3 |
| 65 years and over | 870 | 879 | 994 | 1,102 | 1,227 | 9 | 115 | 108 | 125 | 1.0 | 13.1 | 10.9 | 11.3 |
| NONWHITE | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Both sexes* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 7,894 | 8,551 | 9,560 | 10,746 | 12,072 | 657 | 1,009 | 1,186 | 1,326 | 8.3 | 11.8 | 12.4 | 12.3 |
| 16 to 24 years | 1,481 | 1,839 | 2,335 | 2,809 | 3,161 | 358 | 516 | 454 | 352 | 24.2 | 28.1 | 19.3 | 12.5 |
| 25 to 44 years | 3,767 | 3,882 | 4,081 | 4,618 | 5,505 | 115 | 199 | 537 | 887 | 3.1 | 5.1 | 13.2 | 19.2 |
| 45 years and over | 2,646 | 2,830 | 3,124 | 3,319 | 3,406 | 184 | 294 | 195 | 87 | 7.0 | 10.4 | 6.2 | 2.6 |
| 45 to 64 years | 2,380 | 2,561 | 2,856 | 3,046 | 3,124 | 181 | 295 | 190 | 78 | 7.6 | 11.5 | 6.7 | 2.6 |
| 65 years and over | 266 | 269 | 268 | 273 | 282 | 3 | −1 | 5 | 9 | 1.1 | −.4 | 1.9 | 3.3 |
| *Male* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 4,814 | 5,084 | 5,695 | 6,409 | 7,241 | 270 | 611 | 714 | 832 | 5.6 | 12.0 | 12.5 | 13.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 930 | 1,137 | 1,426 | 1,684 | 1,891 | 207 | 289 | 258 | 207 | 22.3 | 25.4 | 18.1 | 12.3 |
| 25 to 44 years | 2,271 | 2,276 | 2,460 | 2,839 | 3,437 | 5 | 184 | 379 | 598 | .2 | 8.1 | 15.4 | 21.1 |
| 45 years and over | 1,613 | 1,671 | 1,809 | 1,886 | 1,913 | 58 | 138 | 77 | 27 | 3.6 | 8.3 | 4.3 | 1.4 |
| 45 to 64 years | 1,431 | 1,498 | 1,638 | 1,716 | 1,744 | 67 | 140 | 78 | 28 | 4.7 | 9.3 | 4.8 | 1.6 |
| 65 years and over | 182 | 173 | 171 | 170 | 169 | −9 | −2 | −1 | −1 | −4.9 | −1.2 | −.6 | −.6 |
| *Female* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | 3,080 | 3,467 | 3,865 | 4,337 | 4,831 | 387 | 398 | 472 | 494 | 12.6 | 11.5 | 12.2 | 11.4 |
| 16 to 24 years | 551 | 702 | 929 | 1,125 | 1,270 | 151 | 227 | 196 | 145 | 27.4 | 32.3 | 21.1 | 12.9 |
| 25 to 44 years | 1,496 | 1,606 | 1,621 | 1,779 | 2,068 | 110 | 15 | 158 | 289 | 7.4 | .9 | 9.7 | 16.2 |
| 45 years and over | 1,033 | 1,159 | 1,315 | 1,433 | 1,493 | 126 | 156 | 118 | 60 | 12.2 | 13.5 | 9.0 | 4.2 |
| 45 to 64 years | 949 | 1,063 | 1,218 | 1,330 | 1,380 | 114 | 155 | 112 | 50 | 12.0 | 14.6 | 9.2 | 3.8 |
| 65 years and over | 84 | 96 | 97 | 103 | 113 | 12 | 1 | 6 | 10 | 14.3 | 1.0 | 6.2 | 9.7 |

## Table E–6. Percent Distribution of the Total Labor Force, by Color, Sex, and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Sex and age | 1960 | | | 1965 | | | 1970 | | | 1975 | | | 1980 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | White | Non-white | Total | White | Non-white | Total | White | Non-white | Total | White | Non-white | Total | White | Non-white |
| BOTH SEXES | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 72,104 | 64,210 | 7,894 | 77,177 | 68,627 | 8,551 | 84,617 | 75,055 | 9,560 | 92,183 | 81,436 | 10,746 | 99,942 | 87,872 | 12,072 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 17.6 | 17.5 | 18.8 | 20.3 | 20.1 | 21.5 | 22.4 | 22.1 | 24.6 | 22.8 | 22.4 | 26.1 | 22.6 | 22.1 | 26.2 |
| 25 to 44 years | 44.2 | 43.8 | 47.7 | 41.7 | 41.3 | 45.4 | 39.5 | 39.1 | 42.7 | 40.5 | 40.2 | 43.0 | 43.4 | 43.1 | 45.6 |
| 45 to 64 years | 33.5 | 33.9 | 30.1 | 33.9 | 34.4 | 29.9 | 34.3 | 34.9 | 29.9 | 33.0 | 33.7 | 28.3 | 30.6 | 31.2 | 25.9 |
| 65 years and over | 4.7 | 4.8 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 2.3 |
| MALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 48,933 | 44,119 | 4,814 | 50,946 | 45,862 | 5,084 | 54,958 | 49,263 | 5,695 | 59,355 | 52,946 | 6,409 | 64,063 | 56,822 | 7,241 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 16.6 | 16.3 | 19.3 | 19.2 | 18.8 | 22.4 | 21.4 | 20.9 | 25.0 | 21.9 | 21.4 | 26.3 | 21.7 | 21.1 | 26.1 |
| 25 to 44 years | 45.8 | 45.6 | 47.2 | 43.5 | 43.4 | 44.8 | 41.8 | 41.7 | 43.2 | 43.2 | 43.1 | 44.3 | 46.3 | 46.2 | 47.5 |
| 45 to 64 years | 32.7 | 33.1 | 29.7 | 33.2 | 33.6 | 29.5 | 33.0 | 33.4 | 28.8 | 31.3 | 31.9 | 26.8 | 28.7 | 29.3 | 24.1 |
| 65 years and over | 5.0 | 5.1 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 3.4 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 2.3 |
| FEMALE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 years and over | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 23,171 | 20,091 | 3,080 | 26,232 | 22,765 | 3,467 | 29,657 | 25,792 | 3,865 | 32,827 | 28,490 | 4,337 | 35,881 | 31,050 | 4,831 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 16 to 24 years | 19.9 | 20.2 | 17.9 | 22.5 | 22.8 | 20.2 | 24.2 | 24.2 | 24.0 | 24.6 | 24.4 | 25.9 | 24.2 | 23.8 | 26.3 |
| 25 to 44 years | 40.9 | 39.8 | 48.6 | 38.4 | 37.1 | 46.3 | 35.2 | 34.2 | 41.9 | 35.7 | 34.8 | 41.0 | 38.3 | 37.6 | 42.8 |
| 45 to 64 years | 35.0 | 35.7 | 30.8 | 35.5 | 36.2 | 30.7 | 36.9 | 37.7 | 31.5 | 36.1 | 36.9 | 30.7 | 33.8 | 34.7 | 28.6 |
| 65 years and over | 4.1 | 4.3 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 2.5 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 2.3 |

## Table E-7. Total Population, Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Region and State, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

| Region and State | Total population[1] | | | Total labor force[1] | | | Labor force participation rates (percent) | | | Percent change[2] | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | Projected | | Actual | Projected | | Actual | Projected | | Population | | Labor force | |
| | 1960 (April 1) | 1970 (July 1) | 1980 (July 1) | 1960 (April 1) | 1970 (annual average) | 1980 (annual average) | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1960-70 | 1970-80 | 1960-70 | 1970-80 |
| United States | 120,735 | 140,966 | 164,726 | 69,237 | 83,875 | 99,204 | 57.4 | 59.5 | 60.2 | 16.8 | 16.9 | 21.1 | 18.3 |
| Northeast | 31,289 | 35,235 | 39,747 | 18,144 | 20,852 | 23,488 | 58.0 | 59.2 | 59.1 | 12.6 | 12.8 | 14.9 | 12.6 |
| North Central | 34,636 | 38,571 | 44,377 | 19,829 | 22,981 | 26,918 | 57.2 | 59.6 | 60.7 | 11.4 | 15.1 | 15.9 | 17.1 |
| South | 36,062 | 43,002 | 50,500 | 20,217 | 25,161 | 30,080 | 56.1 | 58.5 | 59.6 | 19.2 | 17.4 | 24.5 | 19.6 |
| West | 18,744 | 24,157 | 30,099 | 11,046 | 14,873 | 18,721 | 58.9 | 61.6 | 62.2 | 28.9 | 24.6 | 34.6 | 25.9 |
| New England | 7,277 | 8,197 | 9,386 | 4,296 | 4,971 | 5,691 | 59.0 | 60.6 | 60.6 | 12.6 | 14.5 | 15.7 | 14.5 |
| Maine | 652 | 707 | 791 | 366 | 406 | 460 | 56.1 | 57.4 | 58.2 | 8.4 | 11.9 | 10.9 | 13.3 |
| New Hampshire | 415 | 486 | 569 | 249 | 303 | 359 | 60.0 | 62.3 | 63.1 | 17.1 | 17.1 | 21.7 | 18.5 |
| Vermont | 261 | 297 | 340 | 147 | 177 | 207 | 56.3 | 59.6 | 60.9 | 13.8 | 14.5 | 20.4 | 16.9 |
| Massachusetts | 3,594 | 3,948 | 4,478 | 2,112 | 2,398 | 2,726 | 58.8 | 60.7 | 60.9 | 9.8 | 13.4 | 13.5 | 13.7 |
| Rhode Island | 604 | 664 | 726 | 358 | 391 | 422 | 59.3 | 58.9 | 58.1 | 9.9 | 9.3 | 9.2 | 7.9 |
| Connecticut | 1,751 | 2,095 | 2,482 | 1,064 | 1,296 | 1,517 | 60.8 | 61.9 | 61.1 | 19.6 | 18.5 | 21.8 | 17.1 |
| Middle Atlantic | 24,012 | 27,038 | 30,361 | 13,848 | 15,881 | 17,797 | 57.7 | 58.7 | 58.6 | 12.6 | 12.3 | 14.7 | 12.1 |
| New York | 11,921 | 13,528 | 15,117 | 6,963 | 8,011 | 8,876 | 58.4 | 59.2 | 58.7 | 13.5 | 11.7 | 15.0 | 10.8 |
| New Jersey | 4,233 | 5,067 | 5,990 | 2,496 | 3,024 | 3,539 | 59.0 | 59.4 | 59.1 | 20.2 | 17.8 | 21.2 | 17.0 |
| Pennsylvania | 7,858 | 8,423 | 9,254 | 4,389 | 4,846 | 5,382 | 55.9 | 57.5 | 58.2 | 7.2 | 9.9 | 10.4 | 11.1 |
| East North Central | 24,282 | 27,390 | 31,837 | 13,995 | 16,354 | 19,298 | 57.6 | 59.7 | 60.6 | 12.8 | 16.2 | 16.9 | 18.0 |
| Ohio | 6,490 | 7,422 | 8,682 | 3,692 | 4,394 | 5,203 | 56.9 | 59.2 | 59.9 | 14.4 | 17.0 | 19.0 | 18.4 |
| Indiana | 3,108 | 3,497 | 4,056 | 1,783 | 2,117 | 2,526 | 57.4 | 60.5 | 62.3 | 12.5 | 16.0 | 18.7 | 19.3 |
| Illinois | 6,939 | 7,699 | 8,896 | 4,094 | 4,642 | 5,406 | 59.0 | 60.3 | 60.8 | 11.0 | 15.5 | 13.4 | 16.5 |
| Michigan | 5,122 | 5,823 | 6,761 | 2,9[illegible]3 | 3,416 | 4,038 | 56.9 | 58.7 | 59.7 | 13.7 | 16.1 | 17.3 | 18.2 |
| Wisconsin | 2,623 | 2,949 | 3,442 | 1,513 | 1,785 | 2,125 | 57.7 | 60.5 | 61.7 | 12.4 | 16.7 | 18.0 | 19.0 |
| West North Central | 10,354 | 11,181 | 12,540 | 5,834 | 6,627 | 7,620 | 56.3 | 59.3 | 60.8 | 8.0 | 12.2 | 13.6 | 15.0 |
| Minnesota | 2,238 | 2,506 | 2,943 | 1,283 | 1,508 | 1,801 | 57.3 | 60.2 | 61.2 | 12.0 | 17.4 | 17.5 | 19.4 |
| Iowa | 1,857 | 1,942 | 2,140 | 1,037 | 1,162 | 1,323 | 55.8 | 59.8 | 61.8 | 4.6 | 10.2 | 12.1 | 13.9 |
| Missouri | 2,991 | 3,178 | 3,543 | 1,659 | 1,810 | 2,055 | 55.5 | 57.0 | 58.0 | 6.3 | 11.5 | 9.1 | 13.5 |
| North Dakota | 403 | 440 | 490 | 226 | 261 | 297 | 56.1 | 59.3 | 60.6 | 9.2 | 11.4 | 15.5 | 13.8 |
| South Dakota | 440 | 492 | 543 | 248 | 292 | 331 | 56.4 | 59.3 | 61.0 | 11.8 | 10.4 | 17.7 | 13.4 |
| Nebraska | 952 | 1,044 | 1,145 | 546 | 635 | 718 | 57.4 | 60.8 | 62.7 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 16.3 | 13.1 |
| Kansas | 1,473 | 1,579 | 1,736 | 835 | 959 | 1,095 | 56.7 | 60.7 | 63.1 | 7.2 | 9.9 | 14.8 | 14.2 |
| South Atlantic | 17,162 | 20,939 | 25,017 | 9,880 | 12,476 | 14,979 | 57.6 | 59.6 | 59.9 | 22.0 | 19.5 | 26.3 | 20.1 |
| Delaware | 296 | 365 | 450 | 177 | 221 | 272 | 59.8 | 60.5 | 60.4 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 24.9 | 23.1 |
| Maryland | 2,060 | 2,571 | 3,121 | 1,234 | 1,575 | 1,900 | 59.9 | 61.3 | 60.9 | 24.8 | 21.4 | 27.6 | 20.6 |
| District of Columbia | 562 | 611 | 713 | 368 | 399 | 470 | 65.5 | 65.3 | 65.9 | 8.7 | 16.7 | 8.4 | 17.8 |
| Virginia | 2,623 | 3,180 | 3,732 | 1,522 | 1,900 | 2,248 | 58.0 | 59.7 | 60.2 | 21.2 | 17.4 | 24.8 | 18.3 |
| West Virginia | 1,227 | 1,251 | 1,319 | 584 | 661 | 722 | 47.6 | 52.8 | 54.7 | 2.0 | 5.4 | 13.2 | 9.2 |
| North Carolina | 2,951 | 3,459 | 3,963 | 1,739 | 2,112 | 2,410 | 58.9 | 61.1 | 60.8 | 17.2 | 14.6 | 21.4 | 14.1 |
| South Carolina | 1,485 | 1,766 | 2,043 | 884 | 1,086 | 1,246 | 59.5 | 61.5 | 61.0 | 18.9 | 15.7 | 22.9 | 14.7 |
| Georgia | 2,548 | 3,073 | 3,576 | 1,500 | 1,890 | 2,192 | 58.9 | 61.5 | 61.3 | 20.6 | 16.4 | 26.0 | 16.0 |
| Florida | 3,410 | 4,663 | 6,100 | 1,872 | 2,632 | 3,519 | 54.9 | 56.4 | 57.7 | 36.7 | 30.8 | 40.6 | 33.7 |
| East South Central | 7,830 | 8,965 | 10,178 | 4,205 | 5,101 | 5,972 | 53.7 | 56.9 | 58.7 | 14.5 | 13.5 | 21.3 | 17.1 |
| Kentucky | 2,005 | 2,216 | 2,453 | 1,026 | 1,200 | 1,394 | 51.2 | 54.2 | 56.8 | 10.5 | 10.7 | 17.0 | 16.2 |
| Tennessee | 2,376 | 2,757 | 3,109 | 1,304 | 1,594 | 1,836 | 54.9 | 57.8 | 59.1 | 16.0 | 12.8 | 22.2 | 15.2 |
| Alabama | 2,096 | 2,413 | 2,802 | 1,142 | 1,392 | 1,659 | 54.5 | 57.7 | 59.2 | 15.1 | 16.1 | 21.9 | 19.2 |
| Mississippi | 1,353 | 1,579 | 1,814 | 733 | 915 | 1,083 | 54.2 | 57.9 | 59.7 | 16.7 | 14.9 | 24.8 | 18.4 |
| West South Central | 11,070 | 13,098 | 15,305 | 6,132 | 7,584 | 9,129 | 55.4 | 57.9 | 59.6 | 18.3 | 16.8 | 23.7 | 20.4 |
| Arkansas | 1,181 | 1,366 | 1,520 | 604 | 756 | 880 | 51.1 | 55.3 | 57.9 | 15.7 | 11.3 | 25.2 | 16.4 |
| Louisiana | 2,050 | 2,465 | 2,973 | 1,084 | 1,355 | 1,689 | 52.9 | 55.0 | 56.8 | 20.2 | 20.6 | 25.0 | 24.6 |
| Oklahoma | 1,591 | 1,776 | 1,949 | 845 | 998 | 1,142 | 53.1 | 56.2 | 58.6 | 11.6 | 9.7 | 18.1 | 14.4 |
| Texas | 6,248 | 7,491 | 8,863 | 3,599 | 4,475 | 5,418 | 57.6 | 59.7 | 61.1 | 19.9 | 18.3 | 24.3 | 21.1 |
| Mountain | 4,364 | 5,679 | 7,052 | 2,520 | 3,491 | 4,443 | 57.7 | 61.5 | 63.0 | 30.1 | 24.2 | 38.5 | 27.3 |
| Montana | 435 | 496 | 573 | 249 | 301 | 353 | 57.2 | 60.7 | 61.6 | 14.0 | 15.5 | 20.9 | 17.3 |
| Idaho | 423 | 489 | 577 | 245 | 309 | 377 | 57.9 | 63.2 | 65.3 | 15.6 | 18.0 | 26.1 | 22.0 |
| Wyoming | 214 | 247 | 292 | 128 | 156 | 185 | 59.8 | 63.2 | 63.4 | 15.4 | 18.2 | 21.9 | 18.6 |
| Colorado | 1,156 | 1,473 | 1,780 | 670 | 911 | 1,137 | 58.0 | 61.8 | 63.9 | 27.4 | 20.8 | 36.0 | 24.8 |
| New Mexico | 573 | 711 | 936 | 324 | 425 | 578 | 56.5 | 59.8 | 61.8 | 24.1 | 31.6 | 31.2 | 36.0 |
| Arizona | 827 | 1,236 | 1,638 | 466 | 727 | 993 | 56.3 | 58.8 | 60.6 | 49.5 | 32.5 | 56.0 | 36.6 |
| Utah | 542 | 709 | 892 | 312 | 448 | 580 | 57.6 | 63.2 | 65.0 | 30.8 | 25.8 | 43.6 | 29.5 |
| Nevada | 194 | 318 | 364 | 126 | 214 | 240 | 64.9 | 67.3 | 65.9 | 63.9 | 14.5 | 69.8 | 12.1 |
| Pacific | 14,380 | 18,478 | 23,047 | 8,526 | 11,372 | 14,278 | 59.3 | 61.5 | 62.0 | 28.5 | 24.7 | 33.4 | 25.6 |
| Washington | 1,915 | 2,201 | 2,577 | 1,109 | 1,339 | 1,596 | 57.9 | 60.8 | 61.9 | 14.9 | 17.1 | 20.7 | 19.2 |
| Oregon | 1,194 | 1,392 | 1,588 | 676 | 810 | 931 | 56.6 | 58.2 | 58.6 | 16.6 | 14.1 | 19.8 | 14.9 |
| California | 10,726 | 14,221 | 18,094 | 6,379 | 8,784 | 11,251 | 59.5 | 65.9 | 62.2 | 32.6 | 27.2 | 37.7 | 28.1 |
| Alaska | 143 | 170 | 213 | 98 | 112 | 133 | 68.5 | 65.9 | 62.4 | 18.9 | 25.3 | 14.3 | 18.8 |
| Hawaii | 402 | 494 | 575 | 264 | 327 | 367 | 65.7 | 66.2 | 63.8 | 22.9 | 16.4 | 23.9 | 12.2 |

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[1] Does not include the Armed Forces abroad.

[2] Changes for 1960-70 are not strictly comparable with those for 1970-80 because the 1960 data relate to the decennial census date of April 1, the population projections relate to July 1, and the labor force projections are annual averages based on the Current Population Survey.

SOURCE: Population projections are from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and are consistent with the projections in Current Population Reports, Series P-25, Nos. 286 and 326, Series II-B. All other data are from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

## Table E–8. Actual and Projected Employment for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group, 1960 to 1975

| Occupation group | Actual | | | | Projected [1] | | Number change (millions)[2] | | Percent change [2] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960 | | 1965 | | 1975 | | | | | |
| | Number (thousands) | Percent distribution | Number (thousands) | Percent distribution | Number (millions) | Percent distribution [2] | 1960-65 | 1965-75 | 1960-65 | 1965-75 |
| Total employment [3] | 65,777 | 100.0 | 71,088 | 100.0 | 87.2 | 100.0 | 5.3 | 16.1 | 8.1 | 22.7 |
| Professional and technical workers | 7,474 | 11.4 | 8,883 | 12.5 | 12.9 | 14.8 | 1.4 | 4.0 | 18.9 | 45.2 |
| Managers, officials, and proprietors | 7,067 | 10.7 | 7,340 | 10.3 | 9.0 | 10.4 | .3 | 1.7 | 3.9 | 23.3 |
| Clerical workers | 9,759 | 14.8 | 11,129 | 15.7 | 14.8 | 16.9 | 1.4 | 3.6 | 14.0 | 32.5 |
| Sales workers | 4,216 | 6.4 | 4,497 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 6.4 | .3 | 1.1 | 6.7 | 25.0 |
| Craftsmen and foremen | 8,560 | 13.0 | 9,222 | 13.0 | 11.4 | 13.0 | .7 | 2.1 | 7.7 | 23.1 |
| Operatives | 11,950 | 18.2 | 13,336 | 18.8 | 14.7 | 16.9 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 11.6 | 10.5 |
| Service workers | 8,031 | 12.2 | 8,936 | 12.6 | 12.0 | 13.8 | .9 | 3.1 | 11.3 | 34.4 |
| Nonfarm laborers | 3,557 | 5.4 | 3,688 | 5.2 | 3.6 | 4.1 | .1 | –.1 | 3.7 | [4] –2.4 |
| Farmers and farm laborers | 5,163 | 7.8 | 4,057 | 5.7 | 3.2 | 3.6 | –1.1 | –.9 | –21.4 | –21.6 |

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[1] These projections of civilian employment assume 3 percent unemployment whereas the projections of total labor force shown in the preceding tables are consistent with 4 percent unemployment. The lower unemployment assumption implies a slightly larger labor force; e.g., the total labor force in 1975 at 3 percent unemployment would be about 92.6 million as compared with 92.2 million at 4 percent unemployment.

[2] Based on data in thousands.

[3] Represents total employment as covered by the Current Population Survey.

[4] Employment is projected at about the level of the past decade; however, because 1965 employment was unusually high, reflecting a sharp increase in manufacturing, the projected percent change from 1965 indicates an apparent decline.

## Table E–9. Actual and Projected Employment by Industry Division, 1960 to 1975

[Numbers in thousands]

| Industry division | Actual | | | | Projected [1] | | Number change | | Percent change | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960 | | 1965 | | 1975 | | | | | |
| | Number | Percent distribution | Number | Percent distribution | Number | Percent distribution | 1960-65 | 1965-75 | 1960-65 | 1965-75 |
| Agriculture [2] | 5,723 | ---------- | 4,585 | ---------- | 3,745 | ---------- | –1,138 | –840 | –19.9 | –18.3 |
| Total nonagricultural wage and salary workers [3] | 54,234 | 100.0 | 60,832 | 100.0 | 76,040 | 100.0 | 6,598 | 15,208 | 12.2 | 25.0 |
| Goods-producing industries | 20,393 | 37.6 | 21,880 | 36.0 | 24,530 | 32.3 | 1,487 | 2,650 | 7.3 | 12.1 |
| Mining | 712 | 1.3 | 632 | 1.0 | 620 | .8 | –80 | –12 | –11.2 | –1.9 |
| Contract construction | 2,885 | 5.3 | 3,186 | 5.2 | 4,190 | 5.5 | 301 | 1,004 | 10.4 | 31.5 |
| Manufacturing | 16,796 | 31.0 | 18,062 | 29.7 | 19,720 | 25.9 | 1,266 | 1,658 | 7.5 | 9.2 |
| Durable goods | 9,459 | 17.4 | 10,406 | 17.1 | 11,480 | 15.1 | 947 | 1,074 | 10.0 | 10.3 |
| Nondurable goods | 7,336 | 13.5 | 7,656 | 12.6 | 8,240 | 10.8 | 320 | 584 | 4.4 | 7.6 |
| Service-producing industries | 33,840 | 62.4 | 38,953 | 64.0 | 51,510 | 67.7 | 5,113 | 12,557 | 15.1 | 32.2 |
| Transportation and public utilities | 4,004 | 7.4 | 4,036 | 6.6 | 4,580 | 6.0 | 32 | 544 | .8 | 13.5 |
| Transportation | 2,549 | 4.7 | 2,532 | 4.2 | 2,935 | 3.9 | –17 | 403 | –.7 | 15.9 |
| Communication | 840 | 1.5 | 881 | 1.4 | 1,020 | 1.3 | 41 | 139 | 4.9 | 15.8 |
| Electric, gas, and sanitary services | 615 | 1.1 | 623 | 1.0 | 625 | .8 | 8 | 2 | 1.3 | .3 |
| Wholesale and retail trade | 11,391 | 21.0 | 12,716 | 20.9 | 16,115 | 21.2 | 1,325 | 3,399 | 11.6 | 26.7 |
| Wholesale | 3,004 | 5.5 | 3,312 | 5.4 | 4,135 | 5.4 | 308 | 823 | 10.3 | 24.8 |
| Retail | 8,388 | 15.5 | 9,404 | 15.5 | 11,980 | 15.8 | 1,016 | 2,576 | 12.1 | 27.4 |
| Finance, insurance, and real estate | 2,669 | 4.9 | 3,023 | 5.0 | 3,725 | 4.9 | 354 | 702 | 13.3 | 23.2 |
| Service and miscellaneous | 7,423 | 13.7 | 9,087 | 14.9 | 12,945 | 17.0 | 1,664 | 3,858 | 22.4 | 42.5 |
| Government | 8,353 | 15.4 | 10,091 | 16.6 | 14,145 | 18.6 | 1,738 | 4,054 | 20.8 | 40.2 |
| Federal [4] | 2,270 | 4.2 | 2,378 | 3.9 | 2,745 | 3.6 | 108 | 367 | 4.8 | 15.4 |
| State and local | 6,083 | 11.2 | 7,714 | 12.7 | 11,400 | 15.0 | 1,631 | 3,686 | 26.8 | 47.8 |

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[1] Revised 1968. See also footnote 1, table E–8.

[2] Represents total employment for persons 14 years and over as covered by the Current Population Survey prior to the change in age limit introduced in 1967; includes wage and salary workers, the self-employed, and unpaid family workers.

[3] Represents wage and salary employment as covered by the monthly establishment survey; excludes the self-employed, unpaid family workers' and domestic workers in households. (These data are not affected by the change in the lower age limit introduced into the Current Population Survey in 1967.)

[4] Data relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

# Table E–10. Revised Projected Educational Attainment of the Civilian Labor Force 25 Years and Over, by Sex and Age, 1975

[Numbers in thousands]

| Sex and years of school completed | Total, 25 years and over | 25 to 34 years | 35 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **BOTH SEXES** | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 69,857 | 20,325 | 15,879 | 17,745 | 12,616 | 3,292 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Less than 4 years high school | 34.0 | 21.3 | 31.2 | 38.1 | 47.1 | 52.3 |
| 4 years high school or more | 66.0 | 78.7 | 68.8 | 61.9 | 52.9 | 47.7 |
| Elementary: Less than 5 years [1] | 2.3 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 5.8 |
| 5 to 7 years | 5.4 | 2.1 | 4.6 | 6.4 | 8.9 | 11.5 |
| 8 years | 8.3 | 3.3 | 6.3 | 9.2 | 14.8 | 18.1 |
| High school: 1 to 3 years | 17.9 | 15.0 | 18.4 | 19.8 | 19.8 | 16.9 |
| 4 years | 39.5 | 45.7 | 41.6 | 38.3 | 32.9 | 23.2 |
| College: 1 to 3 years | 11.1 | 13.3 | 11.1 | 10.1 | 9.2 | 10.2 |
| 4 years or more | 15.4 | 19.7 | 16.1 | 13.4 | 10.8 | 14.3 |
| Median years of school completed | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 11.6 |
| **MALE** | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 45,109 | 14,208 | 10,301 | 10,723 | 7,790 | 2,087 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Less than 4 years high school | 35.2 | 21.9 | 31.5 | 41.0 | 50.7 | 55.6 |
| 4 years high school or more | 64.8 | 78.1 | 68.5 | 59.0 | 49.3 | 44.4 |
| Elementary: Less than 5 years [1] | 2.8 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 3.4 | 4.8 | 6.2 |
| 5 to 7 years | 5.9 | 2.3 | 5.0 | 7.3 | 9.8 | 12.6 |
| 8 years | 8.8 | 3.5 | 6.5 | 10.5 | 16.0 | 19.9 |
| High school: 1 to 3 years | 17.7 | 15.0 | 17.7 | 19.8 | 20.1 | 16.9 |
| 4 years | 36.7 | 44.7 | 38.4 | 32.9 | 29.4 | 20.3 |
| College: 1 to 3 years | 11.3 | 13.6 | 11.5 | 10.1 | 9.1 | 9.7 |
| 4 years or more | 16.8 | 19.8 | 18.6 | 16.0 | 10.8 | 14.4 |
| Median years of school completed | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.5 | 12.3 | 11.9 | 11.0 |
| **FEMALE** | | | | | | |
| Total: Number | 24,748 | 6,117 | 5,578 | 7,022 | 4,826 | 1,205 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Less than 4 years high school | 31.7 | 20.0 | 30.6 | 33.8 | 41.3 | 46.5 |
| 4 years high school or more | 68.3 | 80.0 | 69.4 | 66.2 | 58.7 | 53.5 |
| Elementary: Less than 5 years [1] | 1.5 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 5.1 |
| 5 to 7 years | 4.6 | 1.7 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 7.4 | 9.6 |
| 8 years | 7.3 | 2.9 | 6.0 | 7.2 | 12.8 | 15.0 |
| High school: 1 to 3 years | 18.3 | 14.9 | 19.7 | 19.7 | 19.3 | 16.8 |
| 4 years | 44.7 | 48.0 | 47.5 | 46.6 | 38.5 | 28.3 |
| College: 1 to 3 years | 10.7 | 12.6 | 10.4 | 10.2 | 9.4 | 11.0 |
| 4 years or more | 12.9 | 19.5 | 11.5 | 9.5 | 10.8 | 14.2 |
| Median years of school completed | 12.4 | 12.6 | 12.4 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 |

[1] Includes persons with no formal education.

SOURCE: Prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, consistent with projections of the educational attainment of the population published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census in Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 390. These projections are based upon the educational attainment of the population and labor force as reported in the monthly Current Population Survey.

# Table E–11. Manpower Requirements for Individual Goals in Relation to Final Demand Expenditures, by Occupation Group, 1962 and 1975

| Type of goal and year | Total outlays | Total final demand expenditures | Total employment (thousands) | Manpower requirements per billion dollars of final demand expenditures [1] (thousands of employees required) | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Total | Professional and technical workers | Managers, officials, proprietors | Clerical workers | Sales workers | Craftsmen and foremen | Operatives | Nonfarm laborers | Private household workers | Other service workers | Farmers and farm laborers |
| | (Billions of 1962 dollars) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Consumer expenditures:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | $356.8 | $356.8 | 42,489 | 119.1 | 12.2 | 14.3 | 17.7 | 9.7 | 12.7 | 19.5 | 4.7 | 6.6 | 11.3 | 10.4 |
| 1975 | 659.6 | 659.6 | 58,649 | 88.9 | 11.0 | 10.3 | 14.9 | 6.9 | 9.2 | 14.0 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 10.3 | 4.6 |
| **Health and education:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 62.0 | 61.4 | 9,069 | 147.7 | 63.1 | 4.1 | 16.4 | 5.1 | 12.2 | 13.1 | 3.5 | -------- | 28.3 | 1.9 |
| 1975 | 167.5 | 166.3 | 17,140 | 102.9 | 45.5 | 2.5 | 13.3 | 2.7 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 1.7 | -------- | 22.4 | .7 |
| **Housing:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 29.4 | 27.0 | 3,425 | 126.8 | 7.8 | 12.6 | 12.8 | 6.3 | 42.5 | 22.9 | 13.8 | -------- | 4.5 | 3.6 |
| 1975 | 62.0 | 54.9 | 5,422 | 98.7 | 8.1 | 9.9 | 10.8 | 3.8 | 33.5 | 17.6 | 9.7 | -------- | 3.6 | 1.7 |
| **International aid:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 5.4 | 4.1 | 509 | 124.3 | 10.3 | 7.8 | 13.7 | 4.9 | 13.4 | 24.9 | 5.1 | -------- | 3.7 | 40.5 |
| 1975 | 12.3 | 10.2 | 812 | 80.0 | 10.3 | 5.7 | 12.7 | 2.6 | 11.1 | 14.8 | 3.1 | -------- | 3.9 | 15.8 |
| **Natural resources:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 5.9 | 5.4 | 652 | 120.8 | 12.6 | 10.2 | 15.4 | 3.7 | 25.4 | 22.4 | 9.6 | -------- | 12.2 | 9.3 |
| 1975 | 16.7 | 13.7 | 1,201 | 87.4 | 13.9 | 7.3 | 11.4 | 2.1 | 19.0 | 15.5 | 6.2 | -------- | 9.2 | 2.8 |
| **National defense:** [2] | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 51.5 | 31.9 | 3,457 | 108.4 | 15.7 | 6.8 | 15.5 | 3.3 | 23.2 | 33.2 | 4.5 | -------- | 4.1 | 2.1 |
| 1975 | 67.6 | 41.9 | 3,264 | 78.0 | 17.1 | 5.2 | 11.1 | 2.1 | 14.8 | 20.1 | 3.0 | -------- | 3.6 | 1.0 |
| **Private plant and equipment:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 48.9 | 48.9 | 5,586 | 114.2 | 11.4 | 11.7 | 16.2 | 5.6 | 25.4 | 29.3 | 9.6 | -------- | 3.9 | 1.1 |
| 1975 | 151.6 | 151.6 | 11,250 | 74.1 | 9.6 | 7.9 | 10.7 | 2.9 | 16.2 | 18.6 | 4.8 | -------- | 3.1 | .3 |
| **Research and development:** [3] | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 16.9 | 16.9 | 2,259 | 134.1 | 43.7 | 7.8 | 17.6 | 3.9 | 17.3 | 30.8 | 6.1 | -------- | 5.6 | 1.3 |
| 1975 | 38.9 | 38.9 | 4,295 | 110.6 | 40.3 | 6.7 | 12.9 | 2.6 | 14.5 | 24.7 | 3.5 | -------- | 4.9 | .5 |
| **Social welfare:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 38.3 | 37.5 | 4,594 | 122.4 | 16.9 | 10.8 | 17.6 | 10.2 | 13.3 | 19.8 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 12.9 | 11.1 |
| 1975 | 92.4 | 90.7 | 8,395 | 92.7 | 15.9 | 9.8 | 15.1 | 6.2 | 8.3 | 12.8 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 12.9 | 5.8 |
| **Transportation:** [4] | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 35.2 | 35.2 | 3,961 | 112.6 | 9.7 | 12.0 | 15.2 | 5.8 | 25.5 | 28.6 | 8.9 | -------- | 5.4 | 1.5 |
| 1975 | 74.9 | 74.5 | 5,972 | 80.1 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 10.5 | 4.1 | 18.9 | 20.5 | 5.3 | -------- | 3.6 | .6 |
| **Urban development:** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 64.2 | 51.6 | 6,336 | 122.9 | 9.8 | 13.5 | 14.8 | 5.8 | 35.4 | 23.4 | 12.8 | -------- | 4.8 | 2.6 |
| 1975 | 129.7 | 109.0 | 10,160 | 93.2 | 8.5 | 10.3 | 12.2 | 3.7 | 27.4 | 17.7 | 8.6 | -------- | 3.7 | 1.1 |

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[1] Estimates refer to final demand expressed in 1962 prices.

[2] Estimates refer to employment created in industry by Government purchases from industry for defense.

[3] Includes space research and development.

[4] Estimates refer to employment in producing, constructing, distributing, and maintaining transportation facilities.

NOTE: The manpower requirements by 1975 are those that would be necessary for the achievement of an illustrative set of national goals designed to provide overall improvement in the pattern of American life. The requirements for each goal reflect both the direct and indirect employment resulting throughout the economy from the expenditures for full achievement of the goals.

SOURCE: "Manpower Requirements for National Objectives in the 1970's" (Washington: National Planning Association, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process).

## Table F–1. Enrollments, Completions, and Posttraining Employment[1] for Institutional and On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, August 1962–June 1967

[Thousands]

| Item | Total, August 1962–June 1967 | July 1966–June 1967 | July 1965–June 1966 | August 1962–June 1965 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| TOTAL | | | | |
| Enrollments | 790.4 | 286.4 | 235.8 | 268.2 |
| Completions | 467.2 | 163.5 | 136.0 | 167.7 |
| Posttraining employment | 366.0 | 128.0 | 109.1 | 128.9 |
| INSTITUTIONAL PROGRAMS | | | | |
| Enrollments | 599.5 | 176.5 | 177.5 | 245.5 |
| Completions | 361.0 | 109.0 | 98.0 | 154.0 |
| Posttraining employment | 271.9 | 80.0 | 74.9 | 117.0 |
| ON-THE-JOB PROGRAMS | | | | |
| Enrollments | 190.9 | 109.9 | 58.3 | 22.7 |
| Completions | 106.2 | 54.5 | 38.0 | 13.7 |
| Posttraining employment | 94.1 | 48.0 | 34.2 | 11.9 |

[1] Completions do not include dropouts. Posttraining employment includes persons who were employed at the time of the last followup. (There are three followups, with the final occurring 1 year after completion of training.)

## Table F–2. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Institutional and On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, August 1962–June 1967

[Percent distribution]

| Characteristic | Institutional programs | | | | On-the-job programs | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total, August 1962–June 1967 | July 1966–June 1967 | July 1965–June 1966 | August 1962–June 1965 | Total, August 1962–June 1967 | July 1966–June 1967 | July 1965–June 1966 | August 1962–June 1965 |
| Total: Number (thousands) | 599.5 | 176.5 | 177.5 | 245.5 | 190.9 | 109.9 | 58.3 | 22.7 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Sex: | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 59.4 | 57.8 | 58.3 | 60.8 | 69.9 | 67.1 | 72.3 | 74.0 |
| Female | 40.6 | 42.2 | 41.7 | 39.2 | 30.1 | 32.9 | 27.7 | 26.0 |
| Age: | | | | | | | | |
| Under 19 years | 15.3 | 16.0 | 15.9 | 13.2 | 13.3 | 11.5 | 16.3 | 9.5 |
| 19 to 21 years | 23.2 | 23.5 | 22.3 | 23.3 | 22.7 | 22.3 | 23.2 | 22.6 |
| 22 to 34 years | 35.0 | 34.5 | 35.2 | 36.0 | 40.7 | 42.3 | 38.2 | 43.2 |
| 35 to 44 years | 15.8 | 14.9 | 15.6 | 16.9 | 13.4 | 13.8 | 12.7 | 14.5 |
| 45 years and over | 10.7 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.6 | 9.9 | 10.1 | 9.6 | 10.2 |
| Race: | | | | | | | | |
| White | 65.1 | 59.5 | 62.5 | 70.4 | 76.4 | 75.6 | 76.4 | 79.4 |
| Negro | 32.6 | 37.7 | 35.2 | 27.6 | 21.4 | 21.9 | 21.9 | 17.7 |
| Other nonwhite | 2.3 | 2.8 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 2.9 |
| Family status: | | | | | | | | |
| Head of family or household | 53.6 | 53.8 | 53.5 | 54.3 | 49.9 | 49.3 | 49.6 | 54.3 |
| Other | 46.4 | 46.2 | 46.5 | 45.7 | 50.1 | 50.7 | 50.4 | 45.7 |
| Years of school completed: | | | | | | | | |
| Under 8 years | 6.9 | 7.6 | 6.6 | 6.5 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 5.5 |
| 8 years | 9.7 | 10.7 | 9.6 | 9.0 | 8.1 | 7.9 | 8.1 | 8.3 |
| 9 to 11 years | 35.3 | 38.8 | 35.8 | 32.7 | 29.1 | 29.4 | 28.6 | 27.5 |
| 12 years | 42.0 | 37.8 | 42.0 | 44.9 | 48.4 | 49.2 | 48.4 | 47.6 |
| Over 12 years | 6.1 | 5.1 | 6.0 | 6.9 | 8.8 | 8.2 | 8.8 | 11.1 |
| Years of gainful employment: | | | | | | | | |
| Under 3 years | 38.8 | 42.0 | 39.2 | 35.6 | 40.3 | 40.0 | 42.0 | 33.0 |
| 3 to 9 years | 36.8 | 35.1 | 37.0 | 38.3 | 35.8 | 36.5 | 34.7 | 39.2 |
| 10 years or more | 24.4 | 22.9 | 23.8 | 26.1 | 23.9 | 23.5 | 23.3 | 27.8 |
| Number of dependents: | | | | | | | | |
| 0 | 46.1 | 48.9 | 47.6 | 43.0 | 46.0 | 46.3 | 47.6 | 38.9 |
| 1 person | 15.5 | 14.4 | 15.4 | 16.2 | 17.5 | 17.6 | 17.2 | 18.3 |
| 2 persons | 13.3 | 12.1 | 12.5 | 14.7 | 13.5 | 13.5 | 13.1 | 15.6 |
| 3 persons | 9.8 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 10.0 | 12.5 |
| 4 persons | 6.3 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 6.6 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 7.2 |
| 5 persons and over | 9.0 | 9.6 | 8.9 | 8.9 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 7.5 |
| Wage earner status: | | | | | | | | |
| Primary | 63.0 | 68.5 | 65.5 | 59.5 | 63.5 | 65.1 | 62.4 | 63.3 |
| Other | 37.0 | 31.5 | 34.5 | 40.5 | 36.5 | 34.9 | 37.6 | 36.7 |
| Eligibility for allowance: | | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 72.8 | 82.1 | 78.7 | 63.8 | 17.1 | 16.6 | 17.1 | 24.7 |
| No | 27.2 | 17.9 | 21.3 | 36.2 | 82.9 | 83.4 | 82.9 | 75.3 |
| Type of training allowance for which eligible: | | | | | | | | |
| Regular | 47.9 | 41.8 | 39.0 | 66.1 | 48.3 | 44.8 | 43.5 | 75.5 |
| Augmented | 35.0 | 44.0 | 45.6 | 15.4 | 39.2 | 51.9 | 30.6 | 5.2 |
| Youth | 17.1 | 14.2 | 15.4 | 18.5 | 12.5 | 3.3 | 25.9 | 19.3 |
| Unemployment insurance claimant: | | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 15.9 | 10.3 | 13.2 | 21.3 | 6.8 | 6.1 | 5.7 | 14.0 |
| No | 84.1 | 89.7 | 86.8 | 78.7 | 93.2 | 93.9 | 94.3 | 86.0 |
| Public assistance recipient: | | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 10.8 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 9.5 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.1 |
| No | 89.2 | 87.9 | 88.8 | 90.5 | 97.4 | 97.4 | 97.3 | 97.9 |
| Prior employment status: | | | | | | | | |
| Unemployed | 85.2 | 80.2 | 82.8 | 89.8 | 61.2 | 58.4 | 62.8 | 65.9 |
| Family farmworker | 1.4 | .6 | 1.0 | 2.0 | .4 | .4 | .6 | .5 |
| Reentrant to labor force | 2.5 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 1.0 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 2.2 | 1.1 |
| Underemployed | 10.9 | 16.0 | 12.7 | 7.2 | 35.5 | 37.5 | 34.4 | 32.5 |
| Duration of unemployment: | | | | | | | | |
| Under 5 weeks | 33.3 | 36.4 | 35.5 | 30.0 | 45.2 | 45.6 | 45.5 | 43.4 |
| 5 to 14 weeks | 23.5 | 23.9 | 22.9 | 24.2 | 22.3 | 23.1 | 21.3 | 23.6 |
| 15 to 26 weeks | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.6 | 14.0 | 10.6 | 11.0 | 10.1 | 11.4 |
| 27 to 52 weeks | 10.6 | 9.3 | 10.2 | 11.3 | 7.3 | 6.9 | 7.5 | 8.2 |
| Over 52 weeks | 19.3 | 17.3 | 18.8 | 20.5 | 14.6 | 13.4 | 15.6 | 13.4 |
| Prior military service: | | | | | | | | |
| Veteran | 23.5 | 21.4 | 25.2 | 23.2 | 30.3 | 28.3 | 32.8 | 30.7 |
| Rejectee | 3.5 | 5.8 | 4.5 | 1.3 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 3.7 | 1.4 |
| Other nonveteran | 73.0 | 72.8 | 70.3 | 75.5 | 65.9 | 67.4 | 63.5 | 67.9 |
| Handicapped: | | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 8.2 | 10.0 | 8.4 | 7.0 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 3.5 |
| No | 91.8 | 90.0 | 91.6 | 93.0 | 95.6 | 95.5 | 95.6 | 96.5 |

## Table F-3. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Institutional Training Programs Under the MDTA, by State, Fiscal Year 1967

| State | Number of enrollees (thousands) | Percent of total | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Male | White | Age | | | Education | | |
| | | | | Under 22 years | 22 to 44 years | 45 years and over | 8 years or less | 9 to 11 years | 12 years or more |
| United States | 176.5 | 57.8 | 59.5 | 39.5 | 49.4 | 11.1 | 18.3 | 38.8 | 42.9 |
| Alabama | 2.8 | 53.6 | 40.5 | 37.3 | 52.2 | 10.5 | 18.3 | 36.0 | 45.7 |
| Alaska | .6 | 44.8 | 54.5 | 31.4 | 56.0 | 12.6 | 16.7 | 32.6 | 50.7 |
| Arizona | 1.1 | 51.6 | 71.3 | 35.6 | 55.6 | 8.8 | 22.1 | 33.6 | 44.3 |
| Arkansas | 1.9 | 50.6 | 72.5 | 34.1 | 50.0 | 15.9 | 19.7 | 23.6 | 56.7 |
| California | 13.2 | 57.5 | 51.5 | 36.1 | 52.0 | 11.9 | 11.9 | 42.5 | 45.6 |
| Colorado | 1.2 | 52.9 | 88.3 | 24.1 | 61.8 | 14.1 | 13.8 | 41.7 | 44.5 |
| Connecticut | 3.2 | 47.7 | 43.3 | 40.1 | 49.3 | 10.6 | 30.3 | 41.0 | 28.7 |
| Delaware | .4 | 45.0 | 33.1 | 26.0 | 57.6 | 16.4 | 23.8 | 50.8 | 25.4 |
| District of Columbia | 2.0 | 58.2 | 13.2 | 33.2 | 58.5 | 8.3 | 14.3 | 40.9 | 44.8 |
| Florida | 3.5 | 40.5 | 44.3 | 43.6 | 47.0 | 9.4 | 15.0 | 38.8 | 46.2 |
| Georgia | 1.6 | 46.2 | 48.4 | 35.8 | 53.9 | 10.3 | 14.8 | 36.6 | 48.6 |
| Guam | .3 | 52.7 | 5.2 | 93.2 | 6.8 | 0 | 6.8 | 35.1 | 58.1 |
| Hawaii | .5 | 33.2 | 23.9 | 39.4 | 47.0 | 13.6 | 9.5 | 25.9 | 64.6 |
| Idaho | .7 | 55.8 | 95.3 | 23.0 | 60.2 | 16.8 | 16.0 | 27.1 | 56.9 |
| Illinois | 10.0 | 47.4 | 42.6 | 38.6 | 51.4 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 43.6 | 40.4 |
| Indiana | 3.6 | 47.9 | 56.8 | 29.4 | 56.0 | 14.6 | 15.2 | 42.8 | 42.0 |
| Iowa | 1.5 | 70.6 | 89.7 | 41.2 | 37.7 | 21.1 | 17.8 | 33.9 | 48.3 |
| Kansas | 1.1 | 63.8 | 58.9 | 30.7 | 40.0 | 29.3 | 19.3 | 41.4 | 39.3 |
| Kentucky | 4.6 | 73.3 | 92.8 | 33.9 | 50.3 | 15.8 | 47.1 | 21.9 | 31.0 |
| Louisiana | 2.4 | 60.7 | 49.0 | 53.9 | 38.7 | 7.4 | 16.0 | 33.9 | 50.1 |
| Maine | 4.9 | 43.5 | 98.8 | 46.5 | 38.5 | 15.0 | 20.3 | 30.2 | 49.5 |
| Maryland | 2.7 | 38.7 | 43.5 | 40.9 | 47.7 | 11.4 | 15.9 | 40.0 | 44.1 |
| Massachusetts | 5.6 | 58.1 | 80.2 | 37.6 | 45.8 | 16.6 | 23.6 | 38.5 | 37.9 |
| Michigan | 8.2 | 49.2 | 47.5 | 37.3 | 53.1 | 9.6 | 13.2 | 35.7 | 51.1 |
| Minnesota | 3.2 | 60.5 | 91.7 | 40.2 | 48.4 | 11.4 | 13.3 | 27.6 | 59.1 |
| Mississippi | 6.0 | 70.8 | 35.0 | 25.2 | 58.3 | 16.5 | 45.4 | 28.8 | 25.8 |
| Missouri | 3.8 | 60.4 | 61.1 | 29.3 | 57.8 | 12.9 | 22.7 | 41.5 | 35.8 |
| Montana | .5 | 63.9 | 87.1 | 20.5 | 63.4 | 16.1 | 24.7 | 34.0 | 41.3 |
| Nebraska | 1.2 | 48.8 | 80.1 | 39.5 | 49.4 | 11.1 | 9.5 | 38.9 | 51.6 |
| Nevada | 1.2 | 43.0 | 74.6 | 22.5 | 59.4 | 18.1 | 3.7 | 27.3 | 69.0 |
| New Hampshire | .8 | 85.5 | 98.6 | 38.0 | 49.7 | 12.3 | 23.6 | 28.9 | 47.5 |
| New Jersey | 4.0 | 56.8 | 47.9 | 38.8 | 46.2 | 15.0 | 20.8 | 42.4 | 36.8 |
| New Mexico | 1.0 | 38.0 | 89.2 | 46.0 | 49.4 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 19.7 | 76.0 |
| New York | 19.7 | 58.9 | 47.3 | 52.7 | 39.3 | 8.0 | 16.5 | 50.2 | 33.3 |
| North Carolina | 2.1 | 62.8 | 45.8 | 44.0 | 43.6 | 12.4 | 23.6 | 32.0 | 44.4 |
| North Dakota | .6 | 60.4 | 97.8 | 36.2 | 52.5 | 11.3 | 22.5 | 23.9 | 53.6 |
| Ohio | 6.4 | 62.3 | 59.3 | 48.8 | 43.3 | 7.9 | 13.7 | 40.7 | 45.6 |
| Oklahoma | 2.0 | 62.2 | 64.2 | 28.2 | 54.4 | 17.4 | 18.3 | 43.8 | 37.9 |
| Oregon | .6 | 46.7 | 91.3 | 29.4 | 53.7 | 16.9 | 16.2 | 33.1 | 50.6 |
| Pennsylvania | 13.8 | 71.8 | 66.1 | 38.3 | 51.4 | 10.3 | 10.2 | 32.3 | 57.5 |
| Puerto Rico | 2.1 | 85.6 | 76.5 | 27.1 | 67.7 | 5.2 | 19.9 | 33.6 | 46.5 |
| Rhode Island | .8 | 66.3 | 86.7 | 50.5 | 38.0 | 11.5 | 20.9 | 37.4 | 41.7 |
| South Carolina | 2.7 | 48.4 | 44.2 | 39.1 | 47.9 | 13.0 | 29.8 | 33.5 | 36.7 |
| South Dakota | .2 | 58.9 | 86.9 | 34.1 | 55.2 | 10.7 | 12.3 | 27.8 | 59.9 |
| Tennessee | 6.8 | 65.9 | 63.2 | 42.4 | 47.5 | 10.1 | 28.9 | 32.5 | 38.6 |
| Texas | 8.1 | 61.5 | 63.4 | 32.7 | 56.7 | 10.6 | 21.1 | 41.8 | 37.1 |
| Utah | .9 | 48.0 | 94.6 | 59.2 | 33.3 | 7.5 | 10.8 | 47.5 | 41.7 |
| Vermont | .8 | 53.2 | 100.0 | 44.4 | 39.8 | 15.8 | 23.9 | 29.0 | 47.1 |
| Virginia | 1.8 | 50.8 | 73.8 | 37.8 | 50.5 | 11.7 | 25.2 | 29.7 | 45.1 |
| Virgin Islands | .1 | 0 | 9.1 | 28.0 | 72.0 | 0 | 4.0 | 16.0 | 80.0 |
| Washington | 3.0 | 55.2 | 75.1 | 44.0 | 44.1 | 11.9 | 20.8 | 48.9 | 30.3 |
| West Virginia | .9 | 69.0 | 92.4 | 24.3 | 63.4 | 12.3 | 28.9 | 31.1 | 40.0 |
| Wisconsin | 3.5 | 63.7 | 65.9 | 50.1 | 41.7 | 8.2 | 12.0 | 42.6 | 45.4 |
| Wyoming | .3 | 40.4 | 91.3 | 44.7 | 46.8 | 8.5 | 7.4 | 27.7 | 64.9 |

## Table F-4. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, by State, Fiscal Year 1967

| State | Number of enrollees (thousands) | Percent of total | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Male | White | Age | | | Education | | |
| | | | | Under 22 years | 22 to 44 years | 45 years and over | 8 years or less | 9 to 11 years | 12 years or more |
| United States | 109.9 | 67.1 | 75.6 | 33.7 | 56.2 | 10.1 | 13.2 | 29.4 | 57.4 |
| Alabama | 1.5 | 72.4 | 81.7 | 31.3 | 61.0 | 7.7 | 15.4 | 30.7 | 53.9 |
| Alaska | (1) | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |
| Arizona | 1.5 | 53.1 | 84.4 | 22.9 | 60.7 | 16.4 | 14.6 | 26.4 | 59.0 |
| Arkansas | 2.1 | 52.5 | 86.9 | 26.7 | 65.2 | 8.1 | 17.4 | 35.0 | 47.6 |
| California | 14.8 | 75.7 | 67.8 | 37.7 | 54.3 | 8.0 | 6.7 | 26.4 | 66.9 |
| Colorado | 1.4 | 68.2 | 83.9 | 33.1 | 60.1 | 6.8 | 10.9 | 33.6 | 55.5 |
| Connecticut | 1.5 | 69.3 | 74.7 | 45.7 | 46.8 | 7.5 | 19.1 | 35.0 | 45.9 |
| Delaware | .3 | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) | (2) |
| District of Columbia | 1.0 | 70.3 | 41.1 | 23.0 | 69.7 | 7.3 | 7.5 | 26.5 | 66.0 |
| Florida | 3.0 | 61.0 | 70.3 | 25.7 | 60.3 | 14.0 | 17.2 | 32.7 | 50.1 |
| Georgia | 3.6 | 53.4 | 85.1 | 30.1 | 65.7 | 4.2 | 12.5 | 31.1 | 56.4 |
| Hawaii | .8 | 38.7 | 23.4 | 28.5 | 60.7 | 10.8 | 13.6 | 25.0 | 61.4 |
| Idaho | .1 | 88.9 | 89.8 | 26.3 | 67.6 | 6.1 | 7.2 | 29.6 | 63.2 |
| Illinois | 4.4 | 63.1 | 65.5 | 31.5 | 58.0 | 10.5 | 11.3 | 33.9 | 54.8 |
| Indiana | 3.0 | 61.8 | 81.1 | 29.9 | 60.8 | 9.3 | 7.7 | 28.0 | 64.3 |
| Iowa | 1.5 | 63.7 | 96.4 | 32.0 | 54.9 | 13.1 | 13.1 | 24.6 | 62.3 |
| Kansas | 1.4 | 84.8 | 86.1 | 40.4 | 50.9 | 8.7 | 5.4 | 17.0 | 77.6 |
| Kentucky | 2.2 | 80.7 | 88.1 | 40.9 | 50.8 | 8.3 | 23.7 | 27.3 | 49.0 |
| Louisiana | 1.9 | 86.7 | 62.3 | 34.6 | 57.9 | 7.5 | 17.6 | 31.2 | 51.2 |
| Maine | 1.2 | 54.0 | 99.2 | 37.7 | 55.4 | 6.9 | 23.5 | 35.9 | 40.6 |
| Maryland | .7 | 74.7 | 69.1 | 39.2 | 49.6 | 11.2 | 20.8 | 27.0 | 52.2 |
| Massachusetts | 1.9 | 70.2 | 94.0 | 33.8 | 54.2 | 12.0 | 16.8 | 32.5 | 50.7 |
| Michigan | 4.7 | 63.7 | 64.0 | 26.6 | 59.9 | 13.5 | 12.0 | 30.4 | 57.6 |
| Minnesota | 1.6 | 49.2 | 94.3 | 38.4 | 48.5 | 13.1 | 11.8 | 24.0 | 64.2 |
| Mississippi | 1.2 | 86.0 | 74.8 | 37.7 | 53.9 | 8.4 | 15.7 | 28.0 | 56.3 |
| Missouri | 2.0 | 68.8 | 66.8 | 34.6 | 57.2 | 8.2 | 10.2 | 27.1 | 62.7 |
| Montana | .2 | 69.7 | 85.6 | 32.3 | 51.5 | 16.2 | 37.3 | 29.3 | 33.4 |
| Nebraska | .5 | 68.6 | 96.5 | 41.9 | 47.0 | 11.1 | 8.4 | 23.0 | 68.6 |
| Nevada | .6 | 38.3 | 65.0 | 33.6 | 44.1 | 22.3 | 15.0 | 36.1 | 48.9 |
| New Hampshire | .3 | 42.3 | 100.0 | 28.4 | 51.3 | 20.3 | 23.5 | 33.8 | 42.7 |
| New Jersey | 5.2 | 56.6 | 61.0 | 38.6 | 49.1 | 12.3 | 17.8 | 34.6 | 47.6 |
| New Mexico | .1 | 67.1 | 79.1 | 37.1 | 60.0 | 2.9 | 11.8 | 44.1 | 44.1 |
| New York | 8.7 | 73.3 | 69.3 | 37.0 | 52.2 | 10.8 | 15.6 | 36.1 | 48.3 |
| North Carolina | 2.6 | 49.6 | 77.6 | 37.7 | 55.8 | 6.5 | 18.9 | 36.7 | 44.4 |
| North Dakota | .3 | 93.0 | 97.9 | 33.1 | 59.9 | 7.0 | 25.6 | 31.0 | 43.4 |
| Ohio | 4.1 | 81.0 | 76.6 | 39.2 | 53.8 | 7.0 | 10.1 | 27.3 | 62.6 |
| Oklahoma | .7 | 55.2 | 66.6 | 19.0 | 71.6 | 9.4 | 15.5 | 32.8 | 51.7 |
| Oregon | 1.3 | 53.1 | 96.6 | 21.2 | 50.8 | 28.0 | 7.4 | 18.8 | 73.8 |
| Pennsylvania | 6.3 | 53.2 | 66.0 | 35.7 | 49.7 | 14.6 | 11.5 | 30.6 | 57.9 |
| Puerto Rico | 1.4 | 67.5 | 72.8 | 56.7 | 39.4 | 3.9 | 27.6 | 34.0 | 38.4 |
| Rhode Island | .4 | 96.9 | 96.1 | 28.5 | 62.5 | 9.0 | 10.3 | 27.2 | 62.5 |
| South Carolina | 2.8 | 47.3 | 72.0 | 31.3 | 58.9 | 9.8 | 33.5 | 38.4 | 28.1 |
| South Dakota | .4 | 46.2 | 92.1 | 26.2 | 57.7 | 16.1 | 21.2 | 27.4 | 51.4 |
| Tennessee | 4.1 | 79.7 | 83.8 | 24.2 | 64.6 | 11.2 | 21.6 | 28.1 | 50.3 |
| Texas | 3.5 | 81.1 | 76.4 | 33.0 | 61.4 | 5.6 | 7.6 | 22.2 | 70.2 |
| Utah | .6 | 59.8 | 98.9 | 27.2 | 62.9 | 9.9 | 4.1 | 29.6 | 66.3 |
| Vermont | .3 | 93.6 | 99.5 | 40.2 | 55.1 | 4.7 | 6.9 | 23.9 | 69.2 |
| Virginia | 1.0 | 64.3 | 60.7 | 35.8 | 58.5 | 5.7 | 18.6 | 38.7 | 42.7 |
| Washington | .8 | 50.8 | 84.6 | 29.0 | 52.0 | 19.0 | 8.6 | 22.4 | 69.0 |
| West Virginia | 1.6 | 76.5 | 94.5 | 23.4 | 60.0 | 16.6 | 16.1 | 28.0 | 55.9 |
| Wisconsin | 2.6 | 62.6 | 92.4 | 37.5 | 50.5 | 12.0 | 10.6 | 22.4 | 67.0 |
| Wyoming | (1) | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- | -------- |

[1] Less than 50 enrollees; number too small to warrant percent distribution.

[2] Adequate data not available.

## Table F-5. Training Opportunities and Federal Funds Authorized for Institutional and On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, by State, August 1962–June 1967 [1]

[Thousands]

| State | Total, August 1962-June 1967 | | | | | | July 1966-June 1967 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Training opportunities | | | Federal funds authorized | | | Training opportunities | | | Federal funds authorized | | |
| | Total | Institutional | On-the-job | Total | Institutional | On-the-job | Total | Institutional | On-the-job | Total | Institutional | On-the-job |
| United States | 989.8 | 634.2 | 355.6 | $1,162,342 | $963,829 | $198,513 | 285.0 | 132.3 | 152.7 | $334,526 | $240,813 | $93,713 |
| Alabama | 14.6 | 11.5 | 3.1 | 17,615 | 15,850 | 1,765 | 3.9 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 4,466 | 3,600 | 866 |
| Alaska | 3.3 | 3.1 | .2 | 5,629 | 5,556 | 73 | .4 | .3 | .1 | 859 | 801 | 58 |
| Arizona | 8.8 | 5.6 | 3.2 | 10,097 | 8,098 | 1,999 | 2.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 3,185 | 2,327 | 858 |
| Arkansas | 9.2 | 5.1 | 4.1 | 8,132 | 6,804 | 1,328 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 3,279 | 2,618 | 661 |
| California | 118.1 | 64.8 | 53.3 | 136,443 | 110,886 | 25,557 | 37.4 | 13.5 | 23.8 | 46,770 | 34,268 | 12,502 |
| Colorado | 8.8 | 5.6 | 3.1 | 12,403 | 10,534 | 1,869 | 2.0 | .8 | 1.2 | 3,126 | 2,409 | 717 |
| Connecticut | 23.3 | 17.2 | 6.2 | 15,538 | 11,290 | 4,248 | 4.1 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 4,065 | 2,581 | 1,484 |
| Delaware | 2.2 | 1.4 | .8 | 2,595 | 2,231 | 264 | .6 | .2 | .4 | 609 | 394 | 215 |
| District of Columbia | 12.5 | 7.1 | 5.4 | 9,626 | 6,405 | 3,221 | 4.1 | 2.6 | 1.5 | 2,980 | 2,236 | 744 |
| Florida | 20.1 | 14.8 | 5.3 | 20,469 | 17,843 | 2,626 | 5.3 | 3.0 | 2.3 | 6,093 | 4,815 | 1,278 |
| Georgia | 19.9 | 10.5 | 9.4 | 20,139 | 13,843 | 6,296 | 4.8 | 1.9 | 2.9 | 5,366 | 3,107 | 2,259 |
| Guam | .2 | .2 | 0 | 330 | 330 | 0 | (2) | (2) | 0 | 44 | 44 | 0 |
| Hawaii | 3.5 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 2,777 | 1,778 | 999 | .4 | .3 | .1 | 658 | 532 | 126 |
| Idaho | 1.6 | 1.2 | .4 | 2,792 | 2,398 | 394 | .4 | .2 | .2 | 830 | 672 | 158 |
| Illinois | 61.9 | 40.6 | 21.3 | 80,999 | 66,052 | 14,947 | 14.7 | 8.1 | 6.6 | 18,791 | 13,003 | 5,788 |
| Indiana | 16.9 | 11.6 | 5.3 | 22,831 | 18,604 | 4,227 | 5.4 | 2.6 | 2.8 | 6,091 | 3,771 | 2,320 |
| Iowa | 8.9 | 6.1 | 2.8 | 14,123 | 12,153 | 1,970 | 2.9 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 4,010 | 2,639 | 1,371 |
| Kansas | 10.4 | 5.4 | 5.0 | 13,631 | 12,385 | 1,246 | 3.6 | .9 | 2.7 | 3,045 | 2,234 | 811 |
| Kentucky | 20.1 | 14.4 | 5.7 | 30,450 | 28,128 | 2,322 | 5.8 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 7,941 | 6,647 | 1,294 |
| Louisiana | 14.5 | 5.5 | 9.0 | 14,668 | 11,442 | 3,226 | 4.6 | 1.6 | 3.0 | 4,661 | 3,806 | 855 |
| Maine | 11.2 | 7.9 | 3.3 | 7,115 | 6,041 | 1,074 | 2.2 | 1.3 | .9 | 1,929 | 1,499 | 430 |
| Maryland | 12.7 | 8.7 | 4.0 | 11,645 | 8,886 | 2,759 | 5.5 | 3.8 | 1.7 | 6,028 | 4,115 | 1,913 |
| Massachusetts | 31.0 | 23.6 | 7.4 | 38,476 | 33,618 | 4,858 | 8.3 | 5.3 | 3.0 | 10,539 | 8,376 | 2,163 |
| Michigan | 40.5 | 26.9 | 13.6 | 59,436 | 48,987 | 10,449 | 10.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 14,465 | 10,177 | 4,288 |
| Minnesota | 16.2 | 11.5 | 4.7 | 23,034 | 21,089 | 1,945 | 3.8 | 2.5 | 1.3 | 5,137 | 4,320 | 817 |
| Mississippi | 13.0 | 7.7 | 5.3 | 21,719 | 17,592 | 4,127 | 3.7 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 4,792 | 3,697 | 1,095 |
| Missouri | 23.1 | 16.7 | 6.4 | 31,586 | 25,746 | 5,840 | 4.8 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 8,459 | 4,955 | 3,504 |
| Montana | 3.4 | 2.6 | .8 | 4,466 | 3,870 | 596 | 1.0 | .6 | .4 | 1,313 | 877 | 436 |
| Nebraska | 6.1 | 5.0 | 1.1 | 8,718 | 8,359 | 359 | 1.1 | .8 | .3 | 1,637 | 1,509 | 128 |
| Nevada | 4.4 | 3.1 | 1.3 | 5,018 | 4,451 | 567 | .7 | .4 | .3 | 942 | 717 | 225 |
| New Hampshire | 4.8 | 3.4 | 1.4 | 4,221 | 3,745 | 476 | .9 | .5 | .4 | 1,062 | 863 | 199 |
| New Jersey | 39.9 | 20.5 | 19.4 | 44,525 | 35,347 | 9,178 | 14.9 | 5.6 | 9.3 | 14,456 | 9,891 | 4,565 |
| New Mexico | 3.3 | 2.9 | .4 | 4,459 | 4,191 | 268 | .7 | .5 | .2 | 1,303 | 1,109 | 194 |
| New York | 93.5 | 58.1 | 35.4 | 127,753 | 107,112 | 20,641 | 31.2 | 12.3 | 18.9 | 38,205 | 26,938 | 11,267 |
| North Carolina | 19.9 | 8.9 | 11.0 | 17,085 | 13,852 | 3,233 | 5.9 | 2.1 | 3.8 | 5,724 | 4,166 | 1,558 |
| North Dakota | 3.5 | 2.4 | 1.1 | 6,543 | 5,658 | 885 | 1.9 | .7 | .3 | 1,928 | 1,565 | 363 |
| Ohio | 42.5 | 31.1 | 11.4 | 51,712 | 43,901 | 7,811 | 10.6 | 6.3 | 4.3 | 14,549 | 11,276 | 3,273 |
| Oklahoma | 9.8 | 7.8 | 2.0 | 9,074 | 8,060 | 1,014 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 1.4 | 3,429 | 2,727 | 702 |
| Oregon | 9.7 | 6.5 | 3.2 | 10,051 | 8,326 | 1,725 | 3.2 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 2,913 | 1,770 | 1,143 |
| Pennsylvania | 49.8 | 32.4 | 17.4 | 62,832 | 51,453 | 11,379 | 16.1 | 6.9 | 9.2 | 19,372 | 12,299 | 7,073 |
| Puerto Rico | 19.3 | 11.7 | 7.6 | 12,963 | 11,358 | 1,605 | 4.1 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 2,482 | 2,079 | 403 |
| Rhode Island | 3.8 | 2.7 | 1.1 | 4,823 | 4,149 | 674 | .8 | .5 | .3 | 1,143 | 887 | 256 |
| South Carolina | 16.1 | 10.9 | 5.2 | 14,468 | 13,343 | 1,125 | 5.3 | 1.9 | 3.4 | 3,482 | 2,664 | 818 |
| South Dakota | 3.3 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 4,467 | 3,570 | 897 | 1.1 | .4 | .7 | 1,626 | 1,096 | 530 |
| Tennessee | 21.8 | 11.8 | 10.0 | 22,711 | 18,129 | 4,582 | 5.3 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 5,680 | 3,881 | 1,799 |
| Texas | 32.1 | 20.6 | 11.5 | 35,764 | 26,770 | 8,994 | 10.1 | 5.3 | 4.8 | 12,584 | 9,128 | 3,456 |
| Utah | 4.1 | 2.9 | 1.2 | 5,863 | 5,111 | 752 | 1.1 | .6 | .5 | 1,336 | 1,054 | 282 |
| Vermont | 3.0 | 2.5 | .5 | 4,187 | 3,768 | 419 | .5 | .3 | .2 | 493 | 372 | 121 |
| Virginia | 12.8 | 9.5 | 3.3 | 12,413 | 10,858 | 1,555 | 3.9 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 3,719 | 2,747 | 972 |
| Virgin Islands | .8 | .8 | 0 | 279 | 262 | 17 | .1 | .1 | (2) | 64 | 48 | 17 |
| Washington | 21.4 | 17.2 | 4.2 | 17,600 | 15,274 | 2,326 | 4.6 | 2.9 | 1.7 | 5,130 | 3,778 | 1,352 |
| West Virginia | 13.7 | 7.1 | 6.6 | 11,961 | 8,383 | 3,578 | 6.3 | 1.2 | 5.1 | 4,768 | 2,238 | 2,530 |
| Wisconsin | 18.5 | 12.3 | 6.2 | 21,470 | 17,502 | 3,968 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 6,224 | 4,836 | 1,388 |
| Wyoming | 1.4 | 1.2 | .2 | 2,616 | 2,459 | 157 | .3 | .2 | .1 | 744 | 655 | 89 |

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[1] Excludes $23,612,000 and 49,800 "training opportunities" allocated for other-than-skill training. Also, beginning July 1, 1965, includes training opportunities and Federal funds authorized for Redevelopment Areas under section 241 of the MDTA.

[2] Less than 50 trainees.

# Table F–6. Training Status of Registered Apprentices in Selected Trades, 1947–66

| Year | In training at beginning of year | Apprentice actions during year | | | In training at end of year |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | New registrations and reinstatements | Completions | Cancellations[1] | |
| | **Total, all trades[2]** | | | | |
| 1947 | 131,217 | 94,238 | 7,311 | 25,190 | 192,954 |
| 1948 | 192,954 | 85,918 | 13,375 | 35,117 | 230,380 |
| 1949 | 230,380 | 66,745 | 25,045 | 41,257 | 230,823 |
| 1950 | 230,823 | 60,186 | 38,533 | 49,747 | 202,729 |
| 1951 | 202,729 | 63,881 | 38,754 | 56,845 | 171,011 |
| 1952 | [3] 172,477 | 62,842 | 33,098 | 43,689 | 158,532 |
| 1953 | 158,532 | 73,620 | 28,561 | 43,333 | 160,258 |
| 1954 | 160,258 | 58,939 | 27,383 | 33,139 | 158,675 |
| 1955 | 158,675 | 67,265 | 24,795 | 26,423 | 174,722 |
| 1956 | 174,722 | 74,062 | 27,231 | 33,416 | 188,137 |
| 1957 | [3] 189,684 | 59,638 | 30,356 | 33,275 | 185,691 |
| 1958 | 185,691 | 49,569 | 30,647 | 26,918 | 177,695 |
| 1959 | 177,695 | 66,230 | 37,375 | 40,545 | 166,005 |
| 1960 | [3] 172,161 | 54,100 | 31,727 | 33,406 | 161,128 |
| 1961 | 161,128 | 49,482 | 28,547 | 26,414 | 155,649 |
| 1962 | 155,649 | 55,590 | 25,918 | 26,434 | 158,887 |
| 1963 | 158,887 | 57,204 | 26,029 | 26,744 | 163,318 |
| 1964 | 163,318 | 59,960 | 25,744 | 27,001 | 170,533 |
| 1965 | 170,533 | 68,507 | 24,917 | 30,168 | 183,955 |
| 1966 | 183,955 | 85,031 | 26,511 | 34,964 | 207,511 |
| | **Construction trades** | | | | |
| 1952 | 77,920 | 33,316 | 15,679 | 18,756 | 76,801 |
| 1953 | 76,801 | 37,102 | 13,523 | 18,393 | 81,987 |
| 1954 | 81,987 | 34,238 | 15,537 | 18,951 | 81,737 |
| 1955 | 81,737 | 47,238 | 13,444 | 14,632 | 100,899 |
| 1956 | 100,899 | 42,873 | 14,588 | 16,565 | 112,619 |
| 1957[4] | 114,166 | 38,506 | 17,344 | 24,466 | 110,862 |
| 1958 | 110,862 | 34,485 | 20,255 | 16,278 | 108,814 |
| 1959 | 108,814 | 37,894 | 21,067 | 18,942 | 106,699 |
| 1960 | 106,699 | 33,939 | 16,656 | 21,019 | 102,963 |
| 1961 | 102,963 | 33,446 | 17,251 | 18,407 | 100,751 |
| 1962 | 100,751 | 36,994 | 16,477 | 18,222 | 103,046 |
| 1963 | 103,046 | 36,763 | 15,559 | 17,337 | 106,913 |
| 1964 | 106,913 | 38,556 | 16,286 | 19,347 | 109,836 |
| 1965 | 109,836 | 41,379 | 16,201 | 20,082 | 114,932 |
| 1966 | 114,932 | 46,120 | 16,352 | 22,507 | 122,193 |
| | **Metalworking trades** | | | | |
| 1952 | 14,645 | 5,553 | 2,149 | 2,552 | 15,497 |
| 1953 | 15,497 | 9,143 | 2,210 | 3,292 | 19,138 |
| 1954 | 19,138 | 6,352 | 3,641 | 3,418 | 18,431 |
| 1955 | 18,431 | 7,797 | 3,617 | 2,176 | 20,435 |
| 1956 | 20,435 | 8,058 | 4,253 | 2,622 | 21,618 |
| 1957 | 21,618 | 8,289 | 4,740 | 4,740 | 20,427 |
| 1958 | 20,427 | 3,400 | 2,541 | 2,357 | 18,929 |
| 1959 | 18,929 | 5,789 | 3,537 | 2,439 | 18,742 |
| 1960[5] | 24,898 | 7,846 | 4,986 | 3,963 | 23,795 |
| 1961 | 23,795 | 6,819 | 4,719 | 3,669 | 22,226 |
| 1962 | 22,226 | 8,351 | 3,611 | 3,428 | 23,538 |
| 1963 | 23,538 | 9,019 | 3,799 | 3,927 | 24,831 |
| 1964 | 24,831 | 10,704 | 3,923 | 3,652 | 27,960 |
| 1965 | 27,960 | 14,032 | 3,770 | 4,123 | 34,099 |
| 1966 | 34,099 | 21,918 | 4,799 | 6,461 | 44,757 |
| | **Printing trades** | | | | |
| 1952 | 10,069 | 2,651 | 2,513 | 1,527 | 8,680 |
| 1953 | 8,680 | 4,064 | 1,959 | 1,149 | 9,636 |
| 1954 | 9,636 | 3,884 | 2,093 | 1,352 | 10,075 |
| 1955 | 10,075 | 6,556 | 1,435 | 998 | 14,198 |
| 1956 | 14,198 | 3,590 | 1,966 | 1,326 | 14,496 |
| 1957 | 14,496 | 3,679 | 1,844 | 2,113 | 14,218 |
| 1958 | 14,218 | 2,167 | 1,953 | 1,014 | 13,418 |
| 1959 | 13,418 | 2,050 | 1,803 | 922 | 12,743 |
| 1960 | 12,743 | 3,126 | 1,675 | 935 | 13,259 |
| 1961 | 13,259 | 2,968 | 2,526 | 864 | 12,837 |
| 1962 | 12,837 | 3,222 | 2,286 | 1,005 | 12,768 |
| 1963 | 12,768 | 3,108 | 2,569 | 1,178 | 12,129 |
| 1964 | 12,129 | 2,400 | 2,267 | 845 | 11,417 |
| 1965 | 11,417 | 2,587 | 1,565 | 757 | 11,682 |
| 1966 | 11,682 | 3,511 | 1,692 | 1,138 | 12,363 |

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[1] Includes voluntary quits, layoffs, discharges, out-of-State transfers, upgrading within certain trades, and suspensions for military service.

[2] Also includes miscellaneous trades, not shown separately.

[3] The difference from the number in training at the end of the previous year reflects revisions in the reporting system.

[4] Includes lathers beginning 1957.

[5] Includes new trades beginning 1960, mainly silversmiths, goldsmiths, coppersmiths, blacksmiths, and airplane mechanics.

# Table F–7. Nonfarm Placements by State Employment Security Agencies and Other Employment Service Activities, 1966–67

[Thousands]

| State | Nonfarm placements | | | | | | | | Other selected employment service activities | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | | Manufacturing industries | | Age group | | | | Nonfarm job openings registered | | Job applicants | | Counseling interviews | | Aptitude and proficiency tests | |
| | | | | | Under 22 years | | 45 years and over | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 | 1967 | 1966 |
| United States | 5,815 | 6,490 | 1,379 | 1,678 | 1,633 | 1,826 | 1,217 | 1,319 | 8,069 | 9,095 | 10,861 | 10,526 | 2,551 | 2,334 | 2,198 | 2,483 |
| Alabama | 102 | 120 | 22 | 31 | 32 | 39 | 17 | 18 | 137 | 160 | 205 | 200 | 31 | 26 | 43 | 52 |
| Alaska | 12 | 11 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 16 | 20 | 19 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 6 |
| Arizona | 85 | 96 | 10 | 12 | 20 | 19 | 18 | 18 | 111 | 128 | 132 | 110 | 13 | 11 | 22 | 25 |
| Arkansas | 109 | 126 | 34 | 41 | 30 | 39 | 20 | 22 | 119 | 138 | 166 | 176 | 33 | 35 | 43 | 51 |
| California | 583 | 667 | 125 | 144 | 211 | 243 | 110 | 123 | 952 | 1,098 | 1,413 | 1,452 | 258 | 195 | 204 | 232 |
| Colorado | 91 | 101 | 13 | 16 | 28 | 31 | 16 | 17 | 113 | 123 | 134 | 134 | 34 | 30 | 41 | 42 |
| Connecticut | 76 | 86 | 27 | 28 | 21 | 28 | 16 | 17 | 109 | 126 | 159 | 142 | 36 | 34 | 25 | 26 |
| Delaware | 7 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 13 | 17 | 17 | 10 | 12 | 5 | 5 |
| District of Columbia | 57 | 56 | 2 | 1 | 19 | 14 | 8 | 9 | 73 | 81 | 84 | 80 | 18 | 20 | 18 | 21 |
| Florida | 199 | 217 | 29 | 34 | 49 | 52 | 41 | 44 | 274 | 293 | 281 | 264 | 64 | 54 | 66 | 65 |
| Georgia | 134 | 159 | 32 | 39 | 36 | 42 | 20 | 22 | 188 | 210 | 204 | 191 | 35 | 34 | 41 | 48 |
| Hawaii | 10 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 24 | 40 | 39 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 5 |
| Idaho | 34 | 36 | 5 | 6 | 14 | 14 | 6 | 6 | 42 | 43 | 54 | 53 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 12 |
| Illinois | 174 | 212 | 59 | 78 | 44 | 53 | 32 | 38 | 252 | 306 | 386 | 332 | 114 | 107 | 73 | 87 |
| Indiana | 114 | 130 | 39 | 53 | 37 | 43 | 19 | 22 | 159 | 189 | 257 | 237 | 41 | 33 | 38 | 44 |
| Iowa | 67 | 78 | 17 | 22 | 25 | 27 | 14 | 15 | 93 | 107 | 97 | 95 | 17 | 19 | 23 | 28 |
| Kansas | 69 | 77 | 12 | 13 | 22 | 24 | 14 | 16 | 97 | 113 | 104 | 97 | 33 | 28 | 29 | 25 |
| Kentucky | 55 | 62 | 17 | 22 | 18 | 21 | 9 | 10 | 77 | 80 | 153 | 154 | 61 | 50 | 47 | 57 |
| Louisiana | 85 | 94 | 15 | 16 | 25 | 27 | 16 | 16 | 104 | 120 | 156 | 146 | 28 | 18 | 48 | 41 |
| Maine | 20 | 25 | 9 | 11 | 8 | 10 | 3 | 4 | 34 | 42 | 50 | 48 | 16 | 16 | 17 | 17 |
| Maryland | 77 | 88 | 22 | 25 | 23 | 26 | 15 | 16 | 104 | 113 | 141 | 143 | 42 | 41 | 29 | 30 |
| Massachusetts | 138 | 143 | 39 | 43 | 43 | 42 | 27 | 27 | 185 | 204 | 330 | 312 | 83 | 92 | 38 | 48 |
| Michigan | 214 | 235 | 48 | 74 | 44 | 59 | 61 | 62 | 258 | 291 | 506 | 468 | 89 | 79 | 65 | 87 |
| Minnesota | 101 | 107 | 35 | 39 | 37 | 38 | 22 | 25 | 139 | 152 | 210 | 206 | 42 | 40 | 59 | 66 |
| Mississippi | 85 | 103 | 25 | 32 | 28 | 35 | 13 | 15 | 104 | 130 | 169 | 168 | 63 | 53 | 48 | 52 |
| Missouri | 103 | 113 | 33 | 39 | 34 | 35 | 18 | 21 | 146 | 161 | 244 | 229 | 49 | 50 | 50 | 53 |
| Montana | 37 | 38 | 5 | 6 | 12 | 12 | 6 | 6 | 45 | 48 | 56 | 57 | 28 | 25 | 15 | 17 |
| Nebraska | 48 | 53 | 12 | 15 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 11 | 61 | 67 | 64 | 62 | 18 | 17 | 27 | 31 |
| Nevada | 25 | 29 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 8 | 35 | 38 | 54 | 48 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 9 |
| New Hampshire | 15 | 17 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 31 | 33 | 40 | 37 | 12 | 11 | 6 | 9 |
| New Jersey | 144 | 159 | 44 | 52 | 35 | 40 | 32 | 34 | 213 | 243 | 336 | 321 | 83 | 77 | 37 | 36 |
| New Mexico | 32 | 36 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 40 | 45 | 59 | 61 | 13 | 15 | 13 | 17 |
| New York | 726 | 780 | 147 | 169 | 137 | 145 | 211 | 227 | 1,065 | 1,141 | 817 | 819 | 292 | 249 | 141 | 164 |
| North Carolina | 97 | 121 | 36 | 49 | 32 | 42 | 14 | 16 | 163 | 202 | 245 | 239 | 51 | 34 | 70 | 76 |
| North Dakota | 25 | 29 | 2 | 2 | 10 | 11 | 4 | 4 | 34 | 42 | 36 | 35 | 7 | 6 | 11 | 11 |
| Ohio | 199 | 259 | 57 | 87 | 54 | 69 | 43 | 56 | 280 | 366 | 526 | 519 | 75 | 86 | 91 | 116 |
| Oklahoma | 166 | 180 | 20 | 22 | 34 | 37 | 48 | 51 | 188 | 206 | 151 | 141 | 33 | 36 | 36 | 35 |
| Oregon | 65 | 71 | 16 | 19 | 22 | 24 | 12 | 13 | 90 | 98 | 143 | 135 | 36 | 36 | 22 | 24 |
| Pennsylvania | 269 | 299 | 82 | 104 | 79 | 92 | 58 | 60 | 358 | 401 | 569 | 544 | 176 | 176 | 95 | 122 |
| Puerto Rico | 58 | 46 | 18 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 9 | 6 | 68 | 55 | 195 | 195 | 27 | 30 | 20 | 26 |
| Rhode Island | 22 | 25 | 9 | 10 | 8 | 9 | 5 | 6 | 37 | 40 | 49 | 43 | 20 | 14 | 8 | 9 |
| South Carolina | 61 | 76 | 16 | 24 | 18 | 22 | 11 | 13 | 88 | 108 | 127 | 120 | 25 | 19 | 32 | 40 |
| South Dakota | 23 | 24 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 8 | 5 | 5 | 36 | 36 | 32 | 31 | 9 | 9 | 13 | 14 |
| Tennessee | 106 | 128 | 37 | 49 | 33 | 37 | 15 | 18 | 143 | 167 | 181 | 170 | 38 | 32 | 49 | 68 |
| Texas | 527 | 556 | 101 | 105 | 117 | 123 | 118 | 120 | 641 | 687 | 716 | 719 | 189 | 182 | 206 | 214 |
| Utah | 37 | 41 | 7 | 8 | 12 | 13 | 6 | 6 | 47 | 51 | 69 | 63 | 19 | 18 | 30 | 29 |
| Vermont | 12 | 14 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 25 | 24 | 24 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 5 |
| Virginia | 108 | 115 | 27 | 28 | 34 | 36 | 17 | 17 | 155 | 171 | 187 | 171 | 56 | 46 | 64 | 65 |
| Washington | 103 | 116 | 17 | 26 | 30 | 32 | 21 | 23 | 137 | 163 | 174 | 186 | 30 | 36 | 33 | 45 |
| West Virginia | 22 | 25 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 28 | 34 | 91 | 85 | 21 | 18 | 13 | 14 |
| Wisconsin | 72 | 78 | 32 | 35 | 29 | 30 | 12 | 13 | 128 | 147 | 189 | 170 | 44 | 40 | 55 | 63 |
| Wyoming | 14 | 15 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 21 | 21 | 19 | 19 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 |

## Table F–8. Characteristics of Youth Enrolled in Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, by School Status, January 1965–August 1967

[Percent distribution]

| Characteristic | In school [1] | | | Out of school | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | September 1966–August 1967 | September 1965–August 1966 | January 1965–August 1965 | September 1966–August 1967 | September 1965–August 1966 | January 1965–August 1965 |
| Total: Number (thousands) | 446.0 | 357.8 | 157.5 | 172.9 | 187.2 | 119.0 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Sex: | | | | | | |
| Male | 54.8 | 54.8 | 63.4 | 51.6 | 57.0 | 60.2 |
| Female | 45.2 | 45.2 | 36.6 | 48.4 | 43.0 | 39.8 |
| Age: | | | | | | |
| 16 years | 47.6 | 28.4 | 23.8 | 21.3 | 9.1 | 6.8 |
| 17 years | 35.7 | 43.0 | 43.3 | 24.8 | 22.3 | 18.4 |
| 18 years | 12.3 | 20.6 | 22.6 | 22.5 | 25.3 | 33.1 |
| 19 years | 3.4 | 6.1 | 7.3 | 16.1 | 21.1 | 21.8 |
| 20 and 21 years | 1.0 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 15.4 | 22.2 | 19.9 |
| Race: | | | | | | |
| White | 52.4 | 55.8 | 67.3 | 47.0 | 48.2 | 51.4 |
| Negro | 43.3 | 39.0 | 28.7 | 49.4 | 45.2 | 45.1 |
| American Indian | 2.5 | 3.5 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 4.0 | 1.6 |
| Oriental | .6 | 1.0 | .7 | .4 | 1.3 | .4 |
| Other | 1.2 | .7 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 1.5 |
| Years of school completed: | | | | | | |
| 6 years or less | .6 | .8 | .4 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 3.2 |
| 7 years | 1.7 | 1.5 | .9 | 6.5 | 5.9 | 4.2 |
| 8 years | 7.6 | 6.3 | 3.7 | 15.3 | 13.4 | 11.0 |
| 9 years | 20.2 | 17.8 | 12.4 | 22.0 | 19.3 | 15.6 |
| 10 years | 35.3 | 34.9 | 30.6 | 23.9 | 21.0 | 17.0 |
| 11 years | 33.0 | 35.8 | 38.1 | 17.5 | 15.6 | 11.0 |
| 12 years [2] | 1.5 | 2.9 | 13.9 | 9.4 | 19.2 | 38.0 |
| Marital status: | | | | | | |
| Single | 99.3 | 98.8 | 98.9 | 85.3 | 88.8 | 91.6 |
| Married | .5 | .9 | 1.0 | 10.7 | 8.6 | 6.9 |
| Separated, divorced, widowed | .2 | .3 | .1 | 4.0 | 2.6 | 1.5 |
| Reason for leaving school: | | | | | | |
| Academic | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 15.3 | 19.1 | (3) |
| Economic | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 26.1 | 28.7 | (3) |
| Discipline | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 10.3 | 13.6 | (3) |
| Health | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 7.4 | 7.6 | (3) |
| Other [4] | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 40.9 | 31.0 | (3) |
| Months since leaving school: | | | | | | |
| 1 to 3 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 9.4 | 12.4 | (3) |
| 4 to 6 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 12.4 | 13.5 | (3) |
| 7 to 12 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 25.3 | 24.7 | (3) |
| 13 to 24 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 25.2 | 24.1 | (3) |
| 25 to 36 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 14.3 | 13.6 | (3) |
| More than 36 months | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 13.4 | 11.7 | (3) |
| Draft classification: | | | | | | |
| 1A (eligible) | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 39.8 | 38.6 | 45.2 |
| 1Y (acceptable in time of war or national emergency) | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 31.8 | 27.8 | 18.3 |
| 4F (not acceptable) | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 20.9 | 17.5 | 10.7 |
| Other | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | 7.4 | 16.1 | 25.8 |
| Estimated annual family income: | | | | | | |
| Below $1,000 | 5.9 | 10.4 | (3) | 7.4 | 17.8 | (3) |
| $1,000–$1,999 | 28.9 | 24.6 | (3) | 40.6 | 27.0 | (3) |
| $2,000–$2,999 | 25.8 | 28.3 | (3) | 23.8 | 25.0 | (3) |
| $3,000–$3,999 | 21.4 | 20.2 | (3) | 16.0 | 16.7 | (3) |
| $4,000–$4,999 | 11.9 | 11.2 | (3) | 8.1 | 8.8 | (3) |
| $5,000 and over | 6.1 | 5.3 | (3) | 4.2 | 4.7 | (3) |
| Number of persons in family: | | | | | | |
| 1 person | .8 | .8 | (3) | 4.0 | 3.4 | (3) |
| 2 persons | 3.4 | 3.9 | (3) | 7.5 | 7.3 | (3) |
| 3 persons | 8.0 | 9.2 | (3) | 11.3 | 11.7 | (3) |
| 4 persons | 11.9 | 12.8 | (3) | 12.0 | 13.0 | (3) |
| 5 persons | 14.0 | 14.5 | (3) | 12.3 | 12.9 | (3) |
| 6 persons | 13.6 | 13.6 | (3) | 11.3 | 11.6 | (3) |
| 7 persons | 12.5 | 12.0 | (3) | 10.3 | 10.3 | (3) |
| 8 persons and over | 35.8 | 33.2 | (3) | 31.4 | 29.8 | (3) |

Footnotes at end of table.

## Table F–8. Characteristics of Youth Enrolled in Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, by School Status, January 1965–August 1967—Continued

| Characteristic | In school [1] | | | Out of school | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | September 1966–August 1967 | September 1965–August 1966 | January 1965–August 1965 | September 1966–August 1967 | September 1965–August 1966 | January 1965–August 1965 |
| Head of household: | | | | | | |
| Father | 57.4 | 58.9 | (3) | 42.0 | 45.6 | (3) |
| Mother | 32.5 | 30.4 | (3) | 28.9 | 28.3 | (3) |
| Enrollee | .4 | .7 | (3) | 8.6 | 7.8 | (3) |
| Other | 9.7 | 10.0 | (3) | 20.5 | 18.3 | (3) |
| Percent living in public housing | 14.4 | 11.8 | (3) | 14.0 | 14.2 | (3) |
| Percent with family on public assistance | 27.3 | 26.0 | (3) | 26.4 | 27.5 | (3) |
| Percent contributing to family support before NYC | 37.3 | 37.5 | 18.7 | 56.7 | 52.0 | 32.7 |
| Percent who ever had a paying job | 43.8 | 41.5 | 33.0 | 65.3 | 61.9 | 53.3 |
| Hours worked per week on last paying job: | | | | | | |
| 1 to 15 hours | 32.9 | 36.7 | (3) | 10.6 | 11.1 | 8.3 |
| 16 to 40 hours | 59.4 | 53.2 | (3) | 70.5 | 69.4 | 68.7 |
| More than 40 hours | 7.7 | 10.1 | (3) | 18.9 | 19.5 | 23.0 |

[1] Includes youth enrolled in summer projects.
[2] Not necessarily high school graduates.
[3] Not available.
[4] Includes personal reasons, pregnancy, marriage, parental influence, poor relationships with fellow students, etc.

## Table F-9. Enrollment Opportunities and Federal Funds Authorized for Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, by State, January 1965–June 1967[1]

[Thousands]

| State | Total, January 1965–June 1967 | | July 1966–June 1967 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Enrollment opportunities | Federal funds authorized | Enrollment opportunities: Total | In school | Out of school | Summer | Federal funds authorized |
| United States | 1,318.8 | [2] $739,912 | 512.7 | 139.0 | 79.5 | 294.3 | $348,833 |
| Alabama | 23.4 | 14,168 | 11.0 | 4.1 | 2.3 | 4.5 | 8,226 |
| Alaska | 4.5 | 4,374 | 1.8 | .4 | .3 | 1.0 | 1,418 |
| Arizona | 29.0 | 16,004 | 7.6 | 1.6 | .8 | 5.3 | 5,126 |
| Arkansas | 35.6 | 18,501 | 8.6 | 2.4 | 1.2 | 4.9 | 6,167 |
| California | 102.1 | 65,149 | 39.8 | 8.1 | 6.8 | 24.7 | 30,799 |
| Colorado | 13.8 | 7,674 | 3.5 | .9 | .7 | 1.9 | 3,131 |
| Connecticut | 12.0 | 7,493 | 4.4 | 1.4 | .9 | 2.1 | 3,386 |
| Delaware | 2.0 | 1,175 | 1.0 | .2 | .1 | .7 | 587 |
| District of Columbia | 26.1 | 14,276 | 12.8 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 7.0 | 7,092 |
| Florida | 31.4 | 19,241 | 10.6 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 4.5 | 8,244 |
| Georgia | 35.2 | 17,625 | 14.5 | 4.9 | 2.0 | 7.6 | 8,434 |
| Guam | .2 | 141 | .2 | 0 | .1 | .1 | 141 |
| Hawaii | 6.0 | 2,753 | 1.4 | .3 | .2 | .9 | 941 |
| Idaho | 2.3 | 1,069 | 1.0 | .6 | 0 | .5 | 504 |
| Illinois | 81.7 | 35,453 | 36.9 | 9.3 | 5.2 | 22.6 | 17,740 |
| Indiana | 17.6 | 11,478 | 6.7 | 2.1 | 1.2 | 3.5 | 5,587 |
| Iowa | 7.8 | 4,290 | 4.7 | 1.5 | .6 | 2.7 | 2,680 |
| Kansas | 8.1 | 4,483 | 3.4 | 1.0 | .4 | 2.0 | 2,176 |
| Kentucky | 39.9 | 18,001 | 16.4 | 5.8 | 1.7 | 8.9 | 8,759 |
| Louisiana | 24.5 | 12,848 | 12.1 | 3.7 | 1.8 | 6.6 | 8,068 |
| Maine | 6.6 | 3,894 | 2.3 | .8 | .4 | 1.1 | 1,824 |
| Maryland | 10.9 | 7,467 | 5.0 | 1.3 | .7 | 3.0 | 3,631 |
| Massachusetts | 26.7 | 15,034 | 8.5 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 4.2 | 6,236 |
| Michigan | 36.3 | 18,549 | 14.9 | 3.7 | 1.9 | 9.2 | 8,971 |
| Minnesota | 19.5 | 11,702 | 7.2 | 2.1 | .7 | 4.5 | 4,486 |
| Mississippi | 24.5 | 15,209 | 10.4 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 5.2 | 8,085 |
| Missouri | 37.8 | 21,539 | 9.3 | 3.0 | 1.3 | 5.0 | 6,717 |
| Montana | 5.0 | 2,947 | 2.4 | .6 | .2 | 1.6 | 1,479 |
| Nebraska | 5.9 | 3,050 | 3.1 | .9 | .3 | 2.0 | 1,877 |
| Nevada | 3.3 | 1,792 | .9 | .3 | .1 | .5 | 595 |
| New Hampshire | 2.0 | 1,152 | 1.1 | .3 | .2 | .7 | 778 |
| New Jersey | 34.0 | 23,190 | 13.5 | 3.5 | 2.6 | 7.4 | 10,043 |
| New Mexico | 11.2 | 6,299 | 4.0 | 1.0 | .6 | 2.4 | 2,803 |
| New York | 136.1 | 77,255 | 53.4 | 11.4 | 6.6 | 35.1 | 39,937 |
| North Carolina | 41.1 | 23,381 | 19.1 | 5.0 | 2.5 | 11.5 | 12,886 |
| North Dakota | 3.7 | 1,950 | 1.6 | .5 | .2 | 1.0 | 927 |
| Ohio | 53.2 | 32,249 | 20.5 | 5.7 | 2.9 | 11.8 | 14,591 |
| Oklahoma | 32.7 | 16,522 | 7.2 | 2.0 | 1.0 | 4.2 | 5,787 |
| Oregon | 10.7 | 5,408 | 3.4 | 1.0 | .5 | 2.0 | 2,395 |
| Pennsylvania | 57.4 | 35,071 | 24.0 | 6.6 | 3.7 | 13.7 | 15,749 |
| Puerto Rico | 30.2 | 13,205 | 11.2 | 2.3 | 5.1 | 3.8 | 6,379 |
| Rhode Island | 10.0 | 4,615 | 2.9 | 1.2 | .2 | 1.4 | 1,810 |
| South Carolina | 20.0 | 10,459 | 10.1 | 3.4 | 1.9 | 4.8 | 6,486 |
| South Dakota | 4.7 | 2,503 | 2.0 | .5 | .3 | 1.2 | 1,293 |
| Tennessee | 35.8 | 18,878 | 12.0 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 6.2 | 8,117 |
| Texas | 68.4 | 39,697 | 30.2 | 8.7 | 3.7 | 17.8 | 22,558 |
| Utah | 6.3 | 4,280 | 2.1 | .6 | .3 | 1.2 | 1,663 |
| Vermont | 2.9 | 1,614 | 1.1 | .2 | .2 | .7 | 738 |
| Virginia | 18.9 | 12,429 | 9.2 | 2.3 | 1.4 | 5.5 | 6,656 |
| Virgin Islands | 1.2 | 1,102 | .5 | .2 | .2 | .1 | 611 |
| Washington | 16.7 | 10,324 | 5.6 | 1.7 | .8 | 3.2 | 4,203 |
| West Virginia | 25.3 | 12,413 | 8.6 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 6.0 | 5,377 |
| Wisconsin | 14.9 | 7,494 | 6.2 | 2.0 | .3 | 3.9 | 3,389 |
| Wyoming | 1.7 | 994 | .8 | .2 | .1 | .4 | 550 |

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[1] Excludes data for NYC projects funded under the Concentrated Employment Program. These projects accounted for 8,268 enrollment opportunities and $13,592,450.

[2] Total includes $59,250 for two nationwide developmental projects initiated during fiscal year 1965.

## Table F–10. Characteristics of Youth Enrolled in the Job Corps, by Type of Center, October 1966

| Characteristic | All Job Corps centers | Conservation centers | Men's urban centers | Women's urban centers |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total in sample [1] | 3,359 | 1,329 | 1,395 | 635 |
| Years of age: Average | 18.5 | 18.4 | 18.5 | 18.9 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 16 years | 10 | 11 | 11 | 6 |
| 17 years | 21 | 23 | 21 | 15 |
| 18 years | 23 | 22 | 24 | 23 |
| 19 years | 20 | 20 | 18 | 22 |
| 20 years | 13 | 12 | 12 | 15 |
| 21 years | 11 | 9 | 11 | 14 |
| 22 years | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 |
| Race: Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| White | 36 | 32 | 38 | 39 |
| Negro | 54 | 60 | 52 | 48 |
| Other | 10 | 8 | 9 | 13 |
| Highest grade attended: Average | 9.5 | 9.0 | 10.0 | 10.5 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Elementary school | 23 | 35 | 18 | 13 |
| 6th grade or less | 3 | 7 | 1 | 1 |
| 7th grade | 7 | 11 | 5 | 3 |
| 8th grade | 13 | 17 | 12 | 9 |
| High school | 67 | 59 | 74 | 66 |
| 9th grade | 23 | 25 | 23 | 17 |
| 10th grade | 23 | 19 | 28 | 21 |
| 11th grade | 13 | 9 | 16 | 15 |
| 12th grade | 8 | 6 | 7 | 13 |
| Higher than 12th grade | 9 | 5 | 7 | 20 |
| Median grade equivalent at entrance: | | | | |
| Reading grade | 5.3 | 3.2 | 5.7 | 6.2 |
| Arithmetic grade | 5.4 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 6.0 |
| Pre-Job Corps residence: Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Rural | 17 | 21 | 17 | 5 |
| Urban (population 2,500-100,000) | 38 | 40 | 39 | 35 |
| Metropolitan (population over 100,000) | 45 | 39 | 44 | 60 |
| Pre-Job Corps employment status: Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Unemployed | 21 | 16 | 21 | 27 |
| In school | 12 | 11 | 12 | 12 |
| Employed [2] | 65 | 71 | 64 | 54 |
| Not specified | 2 | 2 | 3 | 7 |

[1] Sample selected as representative of the race, age, and length-of-stay distribution of the in-center population in October 1966, the latest month for which data on characteristics are available. These persons had been in the Job Corps an average of 6 months. (As of November 30, 1967, a total of 40,600 youth were in centers, 30,600 men and 10,000 women.) Not all items were reported by all persons in the sample.

[2] Almost two-thirds (61 percent) of those employed earned less than $1.25 per hour.

Source: Office of Economic Opportunity.

## Table G–1. Indexes of Output per Man-Hour and Related Data [1] for the Private Economy and Year-to-Year Percent Change, 1947–67

| Year | Indexes (annual averages 1957-59=100) | | | | | Year | Year-to-year percent change [2] | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total private | Farm | Nonfarm | | | | Total private | Farm | Nonfarm | | |
| | | | Total | Manufacturing | Nonmanufacturing | | | | Total | Manufacturing | Nonmanufacturing |
| | Output per man-hour | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 69.0 | 49.8 | 74.1 | 72.3 | 75.1 | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 72.0 | 58.0 | 76.5 | 76.4 | 76.3 | 1947–48 | 4.3 | 16.5 | 3.2 | 5.7 | 1.6 |
| 1949 | 74.2 | 56.5 | 79.5 | 79.3 | 79.6 | 1948–49 | 3.1 | −2.6 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 4.3 |
| 1950 | 80.3 | 64.4 | 84.4 | 85.0 | 84.1 | 1949–50 | 8.2 | 14.0 | 6.2 | 7.2 | 5.7 |
| 1951 | 82.7 | 64.7 | 86.3 | 86.9 | 85.6 | 1950–51 | 3.0 | .5 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 1.8 |
| 1952 | 84.3 | 70.3 | 87.0 | 87.3 | 86.7 | 1951–52 | 1.9 | 8.7 | .8 | .5 | 1.3 |
| 1953 | 87.8 | 79.6 | 89.6 | 90.2 | 88.8 | 1952–53 | 4.2 | 13.2 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 2.4 |
| 1954 | 89.9 | 83.7 | 91.6 | 91.8 | 91.5 | 1953–54 | 2.4 | 5.2 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 3.0 |
| 1955 | 93.9 | 84.4 | 95.7 | 97.2 | 94.7 | 1954–55 | 4.4 | .8 | 4.5 | 5.9 | 3.5 |
| 1956 | 94.1 | 88.0 | 95.2 | 96.2 | 94.3 | 1955–56 | .2 | 4.3 | −.5 | −1.0 | −.4 |
| 1957 | 96.9 | 93.3 | 97.2 | 98.2 | 96.7 | 1956–57 | 3.0 | 6.0 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.5 |
| 1958 | 99.8 | 103.0 | 99.7 | 98.1 | 100.6 | 1957–58 | 3.0 | 10.4 | 2.6 | −.1 | 4.0 |
| 1959 | 103.4 | 104.8 | 103.1 | 103.7 | 102.9 | 1958–59 | 3.6 | 1.7 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 2.3 |
| 1960 | 105.0 | 110.7 | 104.4 | 105.5 | 103.9 | 1959–60 | 1.5 | 5.6 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 1.0 |
| 1961 | 108.6 | 119.4 | 107.4 | 107.9 | 107.4 | 1960–61 | 3.4 | 7.9 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 3.4 |
| 1962 | 113.8 | 122.2 | 112.3 | 114.3 | 111.5 | 1961–62 | 4.8 | 2.3 | 4.6 | 5.9 | 3.8 |
| 1963 | 117.9 | 133.1 | 115.7 | 118.9 | 114.3 | 1962–63 | 3.6 | 8.9 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 2.5 |
| 1964 | 122.5 | 135.5 | 120.0 | 124.7 | 118.0 | 1963–64 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 3.2 |
| 1965 | 126.3 | 147.5 | 123.3 | 129.5 | 120.0 | 1964–65 | 3.1 | 8.9 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 1.7 |
| 1966 | 130.2 | 154.6 | 126.4 | 132.3 | 123.2 | 1965–66 | 3.1 | 4.8 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.7 |
| 1967 [3] | 132.0 | 171.2 | 127.6 | 133.5 | 124.5 | 1966–67 | 1.4 | 10.8 | .9 | .9 | 1.0 |
| | Output per employed person | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 73.6 | 55.6 | 77.5 | 73.4 | 79.5 | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 76.0 | 64.3 | 79.3 | 76.9 | 80.4 | 1947–48 | 3.5 | 15.6 | 2.2 | 4.8 | 1.0 |
| 1949 | 77.4 | 61.6 | 81.3 | 78.4 | 82.8 | 1948–49 | 1.8 | −4.3 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 3.1 |
| 1950 | 83.9 | 69.1 | 87.0 | 86.3 | 87.2 | 1949–50 | 8.1 | 12.3 | 7.0 | 10.1 | 5.4 |
| 1951 | 86.3 | 70.2 | 88.8 | 88.5 | 88.7 | 1950–51 | 2.9 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 1.6 |
| 1952 | 87.5 | 75.5 | 89.6 | 89.1 | 89.5 | 1951–52 | 1.6 | 7.6 | .9 | .6 | 1.0 |
| 1953 | 90.7 | 86.6 | 91.7 | 91.5 | 91.2 | 1952–53 | 3.6 | 14.6 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 1.9 |
| 1954 | 91.9 | 89.4 | 92.9 | 91.6 | 93.4 | 1953–54 | 1.4 | 3.2 | 1.4 | −.1 | 2.4 |
| 1955 | 96.4 | 88.8 | 97.5 | 99.0 | 96.5 | 1954–55 | 4.8 | −.6 | 5.0 | 8.2 | 3.4 |
| 1956 | 95.8 | 90.6 | 96.6 | 97.4 | 96.0 | 1955–56 | −.6 | 2.1 | −1.0 | −1.6 | −.6 |
| 1957 | 97.2 | 93.9 | 97.6 | 98.3 | 97.2 | 1956–57 | 1.5 | 3.5 | 1.1 | .8 | 1.3 |
| 1958 | 99.3 | 102.7 | 99.2 | 97.1 | 100.2 | 1957–58 | 2.1 | 9.4 | 1.5 | −1.1 | 3.1 |
| 1959 | 103.5 | 104.5 | 103.3 | 104.6 | 102.7 | 1958–59 | 4.2 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 7.7 | 2.4 |
| 1960 | 104.5 | 111.1 | 104.0 | 105.1 | 103.4 | 1959–60 | 1.1 | 6.3 | .7 | .5 | .8 |
| 1961 | 107.3 | 117.9 | 106.3 | 107.7 | 105.9 | 1960–61 | 2.6 | 6.2 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.3 |
| 1962 | 112.6 | 122.3 | 111.4 | 115.1 | 109.8 | 1961–62 | 5.0 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 6.8 | 3.8 |
| 1963 | 116.5 | 132.2 | 114.6 | 119.8 | 112.5 | 1962–63 | 3.4 | 8.1 | 3.0 | 4.2 | 2.4 |
| 1964 | 120.8 | 134.8 | 118.8 | 126.2 | 115.6 | 1963–64 | 3.7 | 1.9 | 3.6 | 5.3 | 2.8 |
| 1965 | 124.9 | 148.6 | 122.3 | 132.2 | 117.7 | 1964–65 | 3.4 | 10.3 | 2.9 | 4.8 | 1.8 |
| 1966 | 128.0 | 154.8 | 124.8 | 135.3 | 119.6 | 1965–66 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 1.7 |
| 1967 [3] | 128.2 | 170.7 | 124.5 | 134.8 | 119.7 | 1966–67 | .2 | 10.3 | −.3 | −.4 | (4) |
| | Output | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 67.6 | 82.1 | 66.8 | 69.3 | 65.6 | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 70.8 | 91.8 | 69.8 | 72.7 | 68.3 | 1947–48 | 4.8 | 11.8 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 4.1 |
| 1949 | 70.6 | 88.9 | 69.7 | 68.7 | 70.2 | 1948–49 | −.3 | −3.2 | −.1 | −5.6 | 2.8 |
| 1950 | 77.9 | 93.7 | 77.0 | 79.7 | 75.7 | 1949–50 | 10.2 | 5.4 | 10.6 | 16.1 | 7.8 |
| 1951 | 82.8 | 88.9 | 82.5 | 87.8 | 79.8 | 1950–51 | 6.3 | −5.2 | 7.0 | 10.1 | 5.4 |
| 1952 | 84.8 | 91.8 | 84.5 | 89.7 | 81.9 | 1951–52 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.6 |
| 1953 | 89.1 | 96.6 | 88.8 | 97.1 | 84.5 | 1952–53 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 8.3 | 3.2 |
| 1954 | 87.9 | 98.6 | 87.4 | 90.3 | 86.0 | 1953–54 | −1.3 | 2.0 | −1.5 | −7.1 | 1.7 |
| 1955 | 95.4 | 101.0 | 95.1 | 100.9 | 92.2 | 1954–55 | 8.5 | 2.5 | 8.8 | 11.8 | 7.2 |
| 1956 | 97.2 | 100.5 | 97.1 | 101.3 | 94.9 | 1955–56 | 1.9 | −.5 | 2.0 | .4 | 3.0 |
| 1957 | 98.6 | 98.1 | 98.6 | 101.7 | 97.1 | 1956–57 | 1.4 | −2.4 | 1.6 | .4 | 2.3 |
| 1958 | 97.3 | 100.5 | 97.2 | 93.4 | 99.1 | 1957–58 | −1.3 | 2.5 | −1.5 | −8.1 | 2.0 |
| 1959 | 104.1 | 101.9 | 104.2 | 104.9 | 103.9 | 1958–59 | 7.0 | 1.4 | 7.3 | 12.3 | 4.9 |
| 1960 | 106.6 | 105.8 | 106.7 | 106.4 | 106.8 | 1959–60 | 2.4 | 3.8 | 2.4 | 1.4 | 2.9 |
| 1961 | 108.6 | 107.2 | 108.7 | 106.0 | 110.1 | 1960–61 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.9 | −.4 | 3.0 |
| 1962 | 116.0 | 106.8 | 116.5 | 116.8 | 116.3 | 1961–62 | 6.8 | −.5 | 7.1 | 10.1 | 5.7 |
| 1963 | 120.8 | 110.1 | 121.4 | 122.7 | 120.8 | 1962–63 | 4.2 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 5.0 | 3.9 |
| 1964 | 127.8 | 107.7 | 128.8 | 131.2 | 127.7 | 1963–64 | 5.7 | −2.2 | 6.1 | 7.0 | 5.7 |
| 1965 | 135.9 | 114.0 | 137.1 | 143.6 | 133.8 | 1964–65 | 6.4 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 9.4 | 4.8 |
| 1966 | 143.5 | 108.2 | 145.4 | 155.9 | 140.1 | 1965–66 | 5.6 | −5.1 | 6.0 | 8.6 | 4.7 |
| 1967 [3] | 146.5 | 116.4 | 148.2 | 156.5 | 144.0 | 1966–67 | 2.1 | 7.6 | 1.9 | .4 | 2.8 |

Footnotes at end of table.

# Table G–1. Indexes of Output per Man-Hour and Related Data[1] for the Private Economy and Year-to-Year Percent Change, 1947–67—Continued

| Year | Indexes (annual averages 1957-59=100) | | | | | Year | Year-to-year percent change[2] | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total private | Farm | Nonfarm | | | | Total private | Farm | Nonfarm | | |
| | | | Total | Manufacturing | Nonmanufacturing | | | | Total | Manufacturing | Nonmanufacturing |
| | Employment | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 91.9 | 147.7 | 86.2 | 94.4 | 82.5 | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 93.1 | 142.8 | 88.0 | 94.5 | 85.0 | 1947–48 | 1.3 | −3.3 | 2.1 | 0.1 | 3.1 |
| 1949 | 91.2 | 144.4 | 85.7 | 87.6 | 84.8 | 1948–49 | −2.1 | 1.2 | −2.6 | −7.3 | −.3 |
| 1950 | 92.9 | 135.6 | 88.5 | 92.3 | 86.8 | 1949–50 | 1.9 | −6.1 | 3.3 | 5.4 | 2.4 |
| 1951 | 96.0 | 126.7 | 92.9 | 99.2 | 90.0 | 1950–51 | 3.3 | −6.5 | 4.9 | 7.5 | 3.7 |
| 1952 | 96.9 | 121.6 | 94.3 | 100.7 | 91.5 | 1951–52 | .9 | −4.1 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.6 |
| 1953 | 98.2 | 111.6 | 96.8 | 106.1 | 92.7 | 1952–53 | 1.4 | −8.2 | 2.7 | 5.3 | 1.4 |
| 1954 | 95.6 | 110.3 | 94.1 | 98.6 | 92.1 | 1953–54 | −2.7 | −1.2 | −2.8 | −7.0 | −.7 |
| 1955 | 99.0 | 113.7 | 97.5 | 101.9 | 95.5 | 1954–55 | 3.5 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 3.3 | 3.7 |
| 1956 | 101.5 | 113.9 | 100.5 | 104.0 | 98.9 | 1955–56 | 2.5 | −2.5 | 3.1 | 2.0 | 3.6 |
| 1957 | 101.4 | 104.5 | 101.0 | 103.5 | 99.9 | 1956–57 | −.1 | −5.7 | .5 | −.4 | 1.0 |
| 1958 | 98.0 | 97.9 | 98.0 | 96.2 | 98.9 | 1957–58 | −3.3 | −6.3 | −3.0 | −7.1 | −1.0 |
| 1959 | 100.6 | 97.5 | 100.9 | 100.3 | 101.2 | 1958–59 | 2.6 | −.4 | 2.9 | 4.3 | 2.4 |
| 1960 | 102.0 | 95.2 | 102.6 | 101.2 | 103.3 | 1959–60 | 1.3 | −2.4 | 1.7 | .9 | 2.1 |
| 1961 | 101.2 | 90.9 | 102.3 | 98.4 | 104.0 | 1960–61 | −.7 | −4.6 | −.4 | −2.8 | .7 |
| 1962 | 103.0 | 87.3 | 104.6 | 101.5 | 105.9 | 1961–62 | 1.7 | −4.0 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 1.9 |
| 1963 | 103.7 | 83.3 | 105.9 | 102.4 | 107.4 | 1962–63 | .8 | −4.6 | 1.2 | .8 | 1.4 |
| 1964 | 105.8 | 79.9 | 108.4 | 104.0 | 110.5 | 1963–64 | 2.0 | −4.1 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 2.8 |
| 1965 | 108.8 | 76.7 | 112.1 | 108.6 | 113.7 | 1964–65 | 2.9 | −4.0 | 3.4 | 4.5 | 2.9 |
| 1966 | 112.1 | 69.9 | 116.5 | 115.2 | 117.1 | 1965–66 | 3.1 | −8.8 | 3.9 | 6.1 | 2.9 |
| 1967[3] | 114.3 | 68.2 | 119.0 | 116.1 | 120.3 | 1966–67 | 1.9 | −2.5 | 2.2 | .8 | 2.8 |
| | Man-hours | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 98.0 | 164.8 | 90.1 | 95.8 | 87.4 | | | | | | |
| 1948 | 98.4 | 158.4 | 91.3 | 95.1 | 89.5 | 1947–48 | 0.4 | −3.9 | 1.3 | −0.7 | 2.3 |
| 1949 | 95.1 | 157.3 | 87.7 | 86.6 | 88.2 | 1948–49 | −3.4 | .7 | −3.9 | −8.9 | −1.5 |
| 1950 | 97.0 | 145.6 | 91.2 | 93.8 | 90.0 | 1949–50 | 2.0 | −7.4 | 4.0 | 8.3 | 2.0 |
| 1951 | [illegible] | 137.5 | 95.6 | 101.0 | 93.2 | 1950–51 | 3.2 | −5.6 | 4.9 | 7.6 | 3.6 |
| 1952 | 100.6 | 130.6 | 97.1 | 102.7 | 94.5 | 1951–52 | .5 | −5.1 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.4 |
| 1953 | 101.5 | 121.4 | 99.1 | 107.7 | 95.2 | 1952–53 | .8 | −7.0 | 2.1 | 4.9 | .7 |
| 1954 | 97.8 | 117.8 | 95.4 | 98.4 | 94.0 | 1953–54 | −3.7 | −3.0 | −3.8 | −8.6 | −1.2 |
| 1955 | 101.6 | 119.6 | 99.4 | 103.8 | 97.4 | 1954–55 | 3.9 | 1.6 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 3.6 |
| 1956 | 103.3 | 114.2 | 102.0 | 105.3 | 100.6 | 1955–56 | 1.7 | −4.6 | 2.6 | 1.5 | 3.2 |
| 1957 | 101.8 | 105.1 | 101.4 | 103.6 | 100.4 | 1956–57 | −1.5 | −7.9 | −.6 | −1.6 | −.1 |
| 1958 | 97.5 | 97.6 | 97.5 | 95.2 | 98.5 | 1957–58 | −4.2 | −7.1 | −3.9 | −8.1 | −1.9 |
| 1959 | 100.7 | 97.2 | 101.1 | 101.2 | 101.0 | 1958–59 | 3.2 | −.4 | 3.7 | 6.4 | 2.5 |
| 1960 | 101.5 | 95.6 | 102.2 | 100.9 | 102.8 | 1959–60 | .8 | −1.7 | 1.1 | −.3 | 1.8 |
| 1961 | 100.0 | 89.8 | 101.2 | 98.2 | 102.5 | 1960–61 | −1.5 | −6.0 | −1.0 | −2.7 | −.3 |
| 1962 | 101.9 | 87.4 | 103.7 | 102.2 | 104.3 | 1961–62 | 2.0 | −2.7 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 1.8 |
| 1963 | 102.5 | 82.7 | 104.9 | 103.2 | 105.7 | 1962–63 | .6 | −5.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.3 |
| 1964 | 104.3 | 79.5 | 107.3 | 105.2 | 108.2 | 1963–64 | 1.8 | −3.8 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.4 |
| 1965 | 107.6 | 77.3 | 111.2 | 110.9 | 111.4 | 1964–65 | 3.2 | −2.8 | 3.7 | 5.4 | 2.9 |
| 1966 | 110.2 | 70.0 | 115.0 | 117.8 | 113.7 | 1965–66 | 2.4 | −9.4 | 3.4 | 6.2 | 2.1 |
| 1967[3] | 111.0 | 68.0 | 116.1 | 117.2 | 115.7 | 1966–67 | .7 | −2.9 | 1.0 | −.5 | 1.7 |

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[1] Output refers to gross national product in 1958 dollars. The man-hours data are based principally on employment and hours derived from the monthly payroll survey of establishments.

[2] Based on aggregates, not on the indexes shown.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Less than 0.05 percent.

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## Table G–2. Gross National Product or Expenditure in Current and Constant Dollars, by Purchasing Sector, 1947–67

| Year | Total gross national product | Personal consumption expenditures | | | | Gross private domestic investment | | | | Net exports of goods and services | Government purchases of goods and services | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Durable goods | Nondurable goods | Services | Total | Nonresidential | Residential structures | Change in business inventories | | Total | Federal | | | State and local |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | Total | National defense | Other | |
| | Billions of current dollars | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 231.3 | 160.7 | 20.4 | 90.5 | 49.8 | 34.0 | 23.4 | 11.1 | −0.5 | 11.5 | 25.1 | 12.5 | 9.1 | 3.5 | 12.6 |
| 1948 | 257.6 | 173.6 | 22.7 | 96.2 | 54.7 | 46.0 | 26.9 | 14.4 | 4.7 | 6.4 | 31.6 | 16.5 | 10.7 | 5.8 | 15.0 |
| 1949 | 256.5 | 176.8 | 24.6 | 94.5 | 57.6 | 35.7 | 25.1 | 13.7 | −3.1 | 6.1 | 37.8 | 20.1 | 13.3 | 6.8 | 17.7 |
| 1950 | 284.8 | 191.0 | 30.5 | 98.1 | 62.4 | 54.1 | 27.9 | 19.4 | 6.8 | 1.8 | 37.9 | 18.4 | 14.1 | 4.3 | 19.5 |
| 1951 | 328.4 | 206.3 | 29.6 | 108.8 | 67.9 | 59.3 | 31.8 | 17.2 | 10.3 | 3.7 | 59.1 | 37.7 | 33.6 | 4.1 | 21.5 |
| 1952 | 345.5 | 216.7 | 29.3 | 114.0 | 73.4 | 51.9 | 31.6 | 17.2 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 74.7 | 51.8 | 45.9 | 5.9 | 22.9 |
| 1953 | 364.6 | 230.0 | 33.2 | 116.8 | 79.9 | 52.6 | 34.2 | 18.0 | .4 | .4 | 81.6 | 57.0 | 48.7 | 8.4 | 24.6 |
| 1954 | 364.8 | 236.5 | 32.8 | 118.3 | 85.4 | 51.7 | 33.6 | 19.7 | −1.5 | 1.8 | 74.8 | 47.4 | 41.2 | 6.2 | 27.4 |
| 1955 | 398.0 | 254.4 | 39.6 | 123.3 | 91.4 | 67.4 | 38.1 | 23.3 | 6.0 | 2.0 | 74.2 | 44.1 | 38.6 | 5.5 | 30.1 |
| 1956 | 419.2 | 266.7 | 38.9 | 129.3 | 98.5 | 70.0 | 43.7 | 21.6 | 4.7 | 4.0 | 78.6 | 45.6 | 40.3 | 5.3 | 33.0 |
| 1957 | 441.1 | 281.4 | 40.8 | 135.6 | 105.0 | 67.9 | 46.4 | 20.2 | 1.3 | 5.7 | 86.1 | 49.5 | 44.2 | 5.3 | 36.6 |
| 1958 | 447.3 | 290.1 | 37.9 | 140.2 | 112.0 | 60.9 | 41.6 | 20.8 | −1.5 | 2.2 | 94.2 | 53.6 | 45.9 | 7.7 | 40.6 |
| 1959 | 483.7 | 311.2 | 44.3 | 146.6 | 120.3 | 75.3 | 45.1 | 25.5 | 4.8 | .1 | 97.0 | 53.7 | 46.0 | 7.6 | 43.3 |
| 1960 | 503.7 | 325.2 | 45.3 | 151.3 | 128.7 | 74.8 | 48.4 | 22.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 99.6 | 53.5 | 44.9 | 8.6 | 46.1 |
| 1961 | 520.1 | 335.2 | 44.2 | 155.9 | 135.1 | 71.7 | 47.0 | 22.6 | 2.0 | 5.6 | 107.6 | 57.4 | 47.8 | 9.6 | 50.2 |
| 1962 | 560.3 | 355.1 | 49.5 | 162.6 | 143.0 | 83.0 | 51.7 | 25.3 | 6.0 | 5.1 | 117.1 | 63.4 | 51.6 | 11.8 | 53.7 |
| 1963 | 590.5 | 375.0 | 53.9 | 168.6 | 152.4 | 87.1 | 54.3 | 27.0 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 122.5 | 64.2 | 50.8 | 13.5 | 58.2 |
| 1964 | 632.4 | 401.2 | 59.2 | 178.7 | 163.3 | 94.0 | 61.1 | 27.1 | 5.8 | 8.5 | 128.7 | 65.2 | 50.0 | 15.2 | 63.5 |
| 1965 | 683.9 | 433.1 | 66.0 | 191.2 | 175.9 | 107.4 | 71.1 | 27.0 | 9.4 | 6.9 | 136.4 | 66.8 | 50.1 | 16.7 | 69.6 |
| 1966 | 743.3 | 465.9 | 70.3 | 207.5 | 188.1 | 118.0 | 80.2 | 24.4 | 13.4 | 5.1 | 154.3 | 77.0 | 60.5 | 16.5 | 77.2 |
| 1967 [1] | 785.1 | 491.6 | 72.1 | 217.5 | 202.1 | 112.1 | 82.5 | 24.5 | 5.1 | 5.0 | 176.3 | 89.9 | 72.6 | 17.3 | 86.4 |
| | Billions of constant dollars, 1958 prices | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 309.9 | 206.3 | 24.7 | 108.3 | 73.4 | 51.5 | 36.2 | 15.4 | −.2 | 12.3 | 39.9 | 19.1 | (2) | (2) | 20.8 |
| 1948 | 323.7 | 210.8 | 26.3 | 108.7 | 75.8 | 60.4 | 38.0 | 17.9 | 4.6 | 6.1 | 46.3 | 23.7 | (2) | (2) | 22.7 |
| 1949 | 324.1 | 216.5 | 28.4 | 110.5 | 77.6 | 48.0 | 34.5 | 17.4 | −3.9 | 6.4 | 53.3 | 27.6 | (2) | (2) | 25.7 |
| 1950 | 355.3 | 230.5 | 34.7 | 114.0 | 81.8 | 69.3 | 37.5 | 23.5 | 8.3 | 2.7 | 52.8 | 25.3 | (2) | (2) | 27.5 |
| 1951 | 383.4 | 232.8 | 31.5 | 116.5 | 84.8 | 70.0 | 39.6 | 19.5 | 10.9 | 5.3 | 75.4 | 47.4 | (2) | (2) | 27.9 |
| 1952 | 395.1 | 239.4 | 30.8 | 120.8 | 87.8 | 60.5 | 38.3 | 18.9 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 92.1 | 63.8 | (2) | (2) | 28.4 |
| 1953 | 412.8 | 250.8 | 35.3 | 124.4 | 91.1 | 61.2 | 40.7 | 19.6 | .9 | 1.1 | 99.8 | 70.0 | (2) | (2) | 29.7 |
| 1954 | 407.0 | 255.7 | 35.4 | 125.5 | 94.8 | 59.4 | 39.6 | 21.7 | −2.0 | 3.0 | 88.9 | 56.8 | (2) | (2) | 32.1 |
| 1955 | 438.0 | 274.2 | 43.2 | 131.7 | 99.3 | 75.4 | 43.9 | 25.1 | 6.4 | 3.2 | 85.2 | 50.7 | (2) | (2) | 34.4 |
| 1956 | 446.1 | 281.4 | 41.0 | 136.2 | 104.1 | 74.3 | 47.3 | 22.2 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 85.3 | 49.7 | (2) | (2) | 35.6 |
| 1957 | 452.5 | 288.2 | 41.5 | 138.7 | 108.0 | 68.8 | 47.4 | 20.2 | 1.2 | 6.2 | 89.3 | 51.7 | (2) | (2) | 37.6 |
| 1958 | 447.3 | 290.1 | 37.9 | 140.2 | 112.0 | 60.9 | 41.6 | 20.8 | −1.5 | 2.2 | 94.2 | 53.6 | (2) | (2) | 40.6 |
| 1959 | 475.9 | 307.3 | 43.7 | 146.8 | 116.8 | 73.6 | 44.1 | 24.7 | 4.8 | .3 | 94.7 | 52.5 | (2) | (2) | 42.2 |
| 1960 | 487.7 | 316.1 | 44.9 | 149.6 | 121.6 | 72.4 | 47.1 | 21.9 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 94.9 | 51.4 | (2) | (2) | 43.5 |
| 1961 | 497.2 | 322.5 | 43.9 | 153.0 | 125.6 | 69.0 | 45.5 | 21.6 | 2.0 | 5.1 | 100.5 | 54.6 | (2) | (2) | 45.9 |
| 1962 | 529.8 | 338.4 | 49.2 | 158.2 | 131.1 | 79.4 | 49.7 | 23.8 | 6.0 | 4.5 | 107.5 | 60.0 | (2) | (2) | 47.5 |
| 1963 | 551.0 | 353.3 | 53.7 | 162.2 | 137.4 | 82.5 | 51.9 | 24.8 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 109.6 | 59.5 | (2) | (2) | 50.1 |
| 1964 | 581.1 | 373.7 | 59.0 | 170.3 | 144.4 | 87.8 | 57.8 | 24.2 | 5.8 | 8.3 | 111.2 | 58.1 | (2) | (2) | 53.2 |
| 1965 | 616.7 | 398.4 | 66.4 | 178.9 | 153.2 | 98.0 | 66.0 | 23.2 | 8.8 | 6.0 | 114.3 | 57.8 | (2) | (2) | 56.4 |
| 1966 | 652.6 | 418.0 | 71.3 | 187.7 | 159.1 | 105.6 | 72.8 | 20.2 | 12.6 | 4.4 | 124.5 | 64.7 | (2) | (2) | 59.9 |
| 1967 [1] | 669.2 | 429.9 | 72.1 | 192.8 | 164.9 | 96.9 | 73.0 | 19.2 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 138.6 | 74.0 | (2) | (2) | 64.6 |

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not available.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

# Table G–3. Government Purchases of Goods and Services, 1962–67[1]

[Billions of dollars]

| Level of government | Total | Government purchases of goods and services[2] | | | | | Compensation of employees of government enterprises |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Purchases from private industry | Compensation of general government personnel | | | |
| | | | | Total | Civilian | Military | |
| **TOTAL** | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | $123.1 | $117.1 | $62.5 | $54.7 | $43.2 | $11.5 | $6.0 |
| 1963 | 129.0 | 122.5 | 64.4 | 58.1 | 46.5 | 11.7 | 6.6 |
| 1964 | 135.7 | 128.7 | 65.7 | 63.0 | 50.4 | 12.6 | 7.0 |
| 1965 | 143.8 | 136.4 | 68.6 | 67.8 | 54.7 | 13.1 | 7.4 |
| 1966 | 162.3 | 154.3 | 77.7 | 76.6 | 60.8 | 15.8 | 8.0 |
| 1967 | (3) | 176.3 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| **FEDERAL GOVERNMENT** | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 67.5 | 63.4 | 39.1 | 24.3 | 12.8 | 11.5 | 4.1 |
| 1963 | 68.7 | 64.2 | 39.0 | 25.3 | 13.6 | 11.7 | 4.4 |
| 1964 | 69.9 | 65.2 | 38.0 | 27.2 | 14.5 | 12.6 | 4.7 |
| 1965 | 71.8 | 66.8 | 38.3 | 28.5 | 15.3 | 13.1 | 5.0 |
| 1966 | 82.5 | 77.0 | 44.4 | 32.7 | 16.8 | 15.8 | 5.5 |
| 1967 | (3) | 89.8 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| *Defense and Atomic Energy Programs* | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 51.8 | 51.6 | 33.0 | 18.6 | 7.1 | 11.5 | .3 |
| 1963 | 51.0 | 50.7 | 31.8 | 19.0 | 7.4 | 11.7 | .3 |
| 1964 | 50.3 | 50.0 | 29.6 | 20.4 | 7.7 | 12.6 | .3 |
| 1965 | 50.4 | 50.1 | 28.9 | 21.2 | 8.1 | 13.1 | .3 |
| 1966 | 60.8 | 60.5 | 35.6 | 24.8 | 9.0 | 15.8 | .3 |
| 1967 | (3) | 72.3 | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) | (3) |
| *Nondefense and Space Programs* | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 15.6 | 11.8 | 6.1 | 5.7 | 5.7 | ------------ | 3.8 |
| 1963 | 17.6 | 13.5 | 7.2 | 6.3 | 6.3 | ------------ | 4.1 |
| 1964 | 19.6 | 15.2 | 8.4 | 6.8 | 6.8 | ------------ | 4.4 |
| 1965 | 21.4 | 16.7 | 9.5 | 7.3 | 7.3 | ------------ | 4.7 |
| 1966 | 21.7 | 16.5 | 8.7 | 7.8 | 7.8 | ------------ | 5.2 |
| 1967 | (3) | 17.4 | (3) | (3) | (3) | ------------ | (3) |
| **STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT** | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 55.7 | 53.7 | 23.3 | 30.4 | 30.4 | ------------ | 1.9 |
| 1963 | 60.4 | 58.2 | 25.4 | 32.9 | 32.9 | ------------ | 2.1 |
| 1964 | 65.8 | 63.5 | 27.7 | 35.9 | 35.9 | ------------ | 2.3 |
| 1965 | 72.1 | 69.6 | 30.3 | 39.3 | 39.3 | ------------ | 2.4 |
| 1966 | 79.8 | 77.2 | 33.3 | 43.9 | 43.9 | ------------ | 2.6 |
| 1967 | (3) | 86.5 | (3) | (3) | (3) | ------------ | (3) |

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[1] For comparability with data on government employment, compensation of government enterprise employees has been added to the total of government purchases of goods and services, as shown in the national income and product accounts. Data on other current operating expenditures of government enterprises are not available. Capital expenditures by these enterprises are included in government purchases of goods and services. Data for 1967 are preliminary; figures for earlier years have been revised.

[2] As defined in the national income and product accounts.

[3] Not available.

SOURCE: Based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

## Table G–4. Employment Resulting From Government Purchases of Goods and Services, and Employment in Government Enterprises, 1962–67[1]

[Millions of employees]

| Level of government | Total | Public and private employment resulting from government purchases of goods and services[2] | | | | | Employment in government enterprises[3] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Employment in private industry | General government personnel | | | |
| | | | | Total | Civilian | Military | |
| TOTAL | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 18.3 | 17.2 | 6.1 | 11.1 | 8.3 | 2.8 | 1.1 |
| 1963 | 18.8 | 17.7 | 6.4 | 11.3 | 8.6 | 2.7 | 1.1 |
| 1964 | 19.2 | 18.0 | 6.4 | 11.6 | 8.9 | 2.7 | 1.2 |
| 1965 | 19.5 | 18.3 | 6.3 | 12.0 | 9.3 | 2.7 | 1.2 |
| 1966 | 21.0 | 19.7 | 6.7 | 13.1 | 10.0 | 3.1 | 1.3 |
| 1967 | 23.1 | 21.8 | 7.7 | 14.1 | 10.7 | 3.4 | 1.3 |
| FEDERAL GOVERNMENT | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 9.0 | 8.4 | 3.7 | 4.6 | 1.8 | 2.8 | .7 |
| 1963 | 9.1 | 8.4 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 1.8 | 2.7 | .7 |
| 1964 | 8.9 | 8.2 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 1.8 | 2.7 | .7 |
| 1965 | 8.9 | 8.1 | 3.5 | 4.6 | 1.8 | 2.7 | .8 |
| 1966 | 9.6 | 8.8 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 2.0 | 3.1 | .8 |
| 1967 | 10.9 | 10.1 | 4.6 | 5.5 | 2.1 | 3.4 | .8 |
| *Defense and Atomic Energy Programs* | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 6.9 | 6.8 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 1.0 | 2.8 | .1 |
| 1963 | 6.4 | 6.3 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 1.0 | 2.7 | .1 |
| 1964 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 1.0 | 2.7 | .1 |
| 1965 | 6.3 | 6.2 | 2.5 | 3.7 | 1.0 | 2.7 | .1 |
| 1966 | 7.2 | 7.1 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 1.0 | 3.1 | .1 |
| 1967 | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | 3.4 | (4) |
| *Nondefense and Space Programs* | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 2.2 | 1.6 | .8 | .8 | .8 | ------------ | .6 |
| 1963 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 1.3 | .8 | .8 | ------------ | .6 |
| 1964 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 1.1 | .8 | .8 | ------------ | .6 |
| 1965 | 2.6 | 1.9 | 1.0 | .9 | .9 | ------------ | .7 |
| 1966 | 2.4 | 1.7 | .8 | .9 | .9 | ------------ | .7 |
| 1967 | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | (4) | ------------ | (4) |
| STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT | | | | | | | |
| 1962 | 9.3 | 8.9 | 2.4 | 6.5 | 6.5 | ------------ | .4 |
| 1963 | 9.6 | 9.2 | 2.5 | 6.7 | 6.7 | ------------ | .4 |
| 1964 | 10.1 | 9.7 | 2.7 | 7.0 | 7.0 | ------------ | .4 |
| 1965 | 10.7 | 10.2 | 2.8 | 7.4 | 7.4 | ------------ | .5 |
| 1966 | 11.4 | 10.9 | 2.9 | 8.0 | 8.0 | ------------ | .5 |
| 1967 | 12.2 | 11.7 | 3.1 | 8.6 | 8.6 | ------------ | .5 |

[1] Data for 1967 are preliminary. Figures for earlier years have been revised.

[2] Derived from the national income and product accounts.

[3] Includes government-operated activities selling products and services to the public, such as the postal service, local water departments, and publicly owned power stations.

[4] Not available.

NOTE: Total government personnel, not shown separately, is the sum of general government personnel and employment in government enterprises.

SOURCE: Based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

## Table G–5. Work Stoppages Resulting From Labor-Management Disputes Involving Six or More Workers for at Least 1 Full Day or Shift, 1947–67

| Year | Work stoppages beginning in year | | | | Man-days idle during year (for all stoppages in effect) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of stoppages | Average duration[1] (calendar days) | Workers involved[2] (thousands) | Percent of total employed | Number (thousands) | Percent of estimated total working time | Per worker involved |
| 1947 | 3,693 | 25.6 | 2,170 | 6.5 | 34,600 | 0.41 | 15.9 |
| 1948 | 3,419 | 21.8 | 1,960 | 5.5 | 34,100 | .37 | 17.4 |
| 1949 | 3,606 | 22.5 | 3,030 | 9.0 | 50,500 | .59 | 16.7 |
| 1950 | 4,843 | 19.2 | 2,410 | 6.9 | 38,800 | .44 | 16.1 |
| 1951 | 4,737 | 17.4 | 2,220 | 5.5 | 22,900 | .23 | 10.3 |
| 1952 | 5,117 | 19.6 | 3,540 | 8.8 | 59,100 | .57 | 16.7 |
| 1953 | 5,091 | 20.3 | 2,400 | 5.6 | 28,300 | .26 | 11.8 |
| 1954 | 3,468 | 22.5 | 1,530 | 3.7 | 22,600 | .21 | 14.7 |
| 1955 | 4,320 | 18.5 | 2,650 | 6.2 | 28,200 | .26 | 10.7 |
| 1956 | 3,825 | 18.9 | 1,900 | 4.3 | 33,100 | .29 | 17.4 |
| 1957 | 3,673 | 19.2 | 1,390 | 3.1 | 16,500 | .14 | 11.4 |
| 1958 | 3,694 | 19.7 | 2,060 | 4.8 | 23,900 | .22 | 11.6 |
| 1959 | 3,708 | 24.6 | 1,880 | 4.3 | 69,000 | .61 | 36.7 |
| 1960 | 3,333 | 23.4 | 1,320 | 3.0 | 19,100 | .17 | 14.5 |
| 1961 | 3,367 | 23.7 | 1,450 | 3.2 | 16,300 | .14 | 11.2 |
| 1962 | 3,614 | 24.6 | 1,230 | 2.7 | 18,600 | .16 | 15.0 |
| 1963 | 3,362 | 23.0 | 941 | 2.0 | 16,100 | .13 | 17.1 |
| 1964 | 3,655 | 22.9 | 1,640 | 3.4 | 22,900 | .18 | 14.0 |
| 1965 | 3,963 | 25.0 | 1,550 | 3.1 | 23,300 | .18 | 15.1 |
| 1966 | 4,405 | 22.2 | 1,960 | 3.7 | 25,400 | .19 | 12.9 |
| 1967[3] | 4,475 | ([4]) | 2,900 | 5.3 | 41,000 | .30 | 14.1 |

[1] Average duration figures relate to stoppages ending during the year and are simple averages, with each stoppage given equal weight regardless of its size.

[2] Workers are counted more than once if they were involved in more than one stoppage during the year.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Not available.

## Table G–6. Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Major Group, and Purchasing Power of the Consumer Dollar, 1947–67

[1957-59=100]

| Year | All items | Food | Housing | | Apparel and upkeep | Transportation | Medical care | Personal care | Reading and recreation | Other goods and services | Purchasing power of the consumer dollar |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Total | Rent | | | | | | | |
| 1947 | 77.8 | 81.3 | 74.5 | 68.7 | 89.2 | 64.3 | 65.7 | 76.2 | 82.5 | 75.4 | 1.285 |
| 1948 | 83.8 | 88.2 | 79.8 | 73.2 | 95.0 | 71.6 | 69.8 | 79.1 | 86.7 | 78.9 | 1.194 |
| 1949 | 83.0 | 84.7 | 81.0 | 76.4 | 91.3 | 77.0 | 72.0 | 78.9 | 89.9 | 81.2 | 1.205 |
| 1950 | 83.8 | 85.8 | 83.2 | 79.1 | 90.1 | 79.0 | 73.4 | 78.9 | 89.3 | 82.6 | 1.194 |
| 1951 | 90.5 | 95.4 | 88.2 | 82.3 | 98.2 | 84.0 | 76.9 | 86.3 | 92.0 | 86.1 | 1.106 |
| 1952 | 92.5 | 97.1 | 89.9 | 85.7 | 97.2 | 89.6 | 81.1 | 87.3 | 92.4 | 90.6 | 1.081 |
| 1953 | 93.2 | 95.6 | 92.3 | 90.3 | 96.5 | 92.1 | 83.9 | 88.1 | 93.3 | 92.8 | 1.072 |
| 1954 | 93.6 | 95.4 | 93.4 | 93.5 | 96.3 | 90.8 | 86.6 | 88.5 | 92.4 | 94.3 | 1.069 |
| 1955 | 93.3 | 94.0 | 94.1 | 94.8 | 95.9 | 89.7 | 88.6 | 90.0 | 92.1 | 94.3 | 1.071 |
| 1956 | 94.7 | 94.7 | 95.5 | 96.5 | 97.8 | 91.3 | 91.8 | 93.7 | 93.4 | 95.8 | 1.056 |
| 1957 | 98.0 | 97.8 | 98.5 | 98.3 | 99.5 | 96.5 | 95.5 | 97.1 | 96.9 | 98.5 | 1.021 |
| 1958 | 100.7 | 101.9 | 100.2 | 100.1 | 99.8 | 99.7 | 100.1 | 100.4 | 100.8 | 99.8 | .994 |
| 1959 | 101.5 | 100.3 | 101.3 | 101.6 | 100.6 | 103.8 | 104.4 | 102.4 | 102.4 | 101.8 | .985 |
| 1960 | 103.1 | 101.4 | 103.1 | 103.1 | 102.2 | 103.8 | 108.1 | 104.1 | 104.9 | 103.8 | .971 |
| 1961 | 104.2 | 102.6 | 103.9 | 104.4 | 103.0 | 105.0 | 111.3 | 104.6 | 107.2 | 104.6 | .960 |
| 1962 | 105.4 | 103.6 | 104.8 | 105.7 | 103.6 | 107.2 | 114.2 | 106.5 | 109.6 | 105.3 | .949 |
| 1963 | 106.7 | 105.1 | 106.0 | 106.8 | 104.8 | 107.8 | 117.0 | 107.9 | 111.5 | 107.1 | .937 |
| 1964 | 108.1 | 106.4 | 107.2 | 107.8 | 105.7 | 109.3 | 119.4 | 109.2 | 114.1 | 108.8 | .925 |
| 1965 | 109.9 | 108.8 | 108.5 | 108.9 | 106.8 | 111.1 | 122.3 | 109.9 | 115.2 | 111.4 | .910 |
| 1966 | 113.1 | 114.2 | 111.1 | 110.4 | 109.6 | 112.7 | 127.7 | 112.2 | 117.1 | 114.9 | .884 |
| 1967 | 116.3 | 115.2 | 114.3 | 112.4 | 114.0 | 115.9 | 136.7 | 115.5 | 120.1 | 118.2 | .860 |

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